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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Comparing Sexual Fantasies and Personality Characteristics of Sex Offenders, Murderers, Other Offenders and Nonoffenders

by

Karen (Keli) Furman ©

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1991

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Karen Furman

1603, 10160 - 115 Street
Edmonton, Alberta

Dated: Aug 28, 1991

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Comparing Sexual Fantasies and Personality Characteristics of Sex Offenders, Murderers, Other Offenders and Nonoffenders submitted by Keli Furman in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

....
Dr. G. Fitzsimmons

Peter Calder..............
Dr. P. Calder

....
Dr. L. Stewin

Donald Milliken
Dr. D. Milliken

....
Mr. J. Robb

for R. Langevin..........
Dr. R. Langevin

Date: Aug 28, 1991

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to gain knowledge regarding the sexual fantasies, personality characteristics and life experiences reported by various types of incarcerated male criminal offenders. One hundred and seventy-eight adult males ranging between 19 and 60 years in age and composed of: 30 nonoffenders, 30 sex offenders against adult females, 24 sex offenders against minors, 29 murderers and 65 physical assaulters against man or property, were compared on a variety of measurement instruments. These measurement instruments included Furman's (1986) Sexual Fantasy Checklist, Wilson's (1978) Sex Fantasy Questionnaire, Jackson's (1967) Personality Research Form--Form E and a Background Information Questionnaire. Between group analysis, correlational procedures and clinical analyses were completed.

In general, the results from this study demonstrate that differences between various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, personality characteristics and life experiences exist. The exact nature of these differences and the direction in which these differences occur were distinguished in many of the comparisons, but were not found for all. Limitations in sample size appeared to be the largest contributor towards failure to demonstrate significant findings, however, further modification and refinement of the measurement instruments used in this study was found to be both required and justified.

Overall, the results from this study support literary claims that sexual offenders harbor sexual fantasies, which are both congruent with the crimes they commit and different from other types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders. Distinct personality characteristics reported by the offenders and nonoffenders were found, and relationships between personality traits and reported sexual fantasies were delineated.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this Dissertation to my parents:

William Furman (Deceased) and
Gertrude Furman

my brother and his wife:

Michael and Fran Furman, and;

my husband:

Sven Christopher Archimowitz.

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I. CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to gain knowledge regarding the sexual fantasies, personalities, and life experiences reported by various types of incarcerated male criminal offenders. This study is an extension of a Masters thesis completed by this author in 1986, where the reported sexual fantasies of various types of convicted sex offenders and nonoffenders were compared. The results from the 1986 study indicated that sex offenders differed from nonoffenders on an instrument developed by this author to delineate one's sexual fantasies.[1] However, these results were not conclusive and further research utilizing larger samples, various types of offenders and more refined research instruments was found to be warranted. In this investigation the author will attempt to meet the limitations presented within the 1986 study by: (1) utilizing a larger and more diverse subject sample; (2) employing a refined version of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist (Furman, 1986); and, (3) comparing this checklist to Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire, which is an established instrument investigating both the nature and content of an individual's sexual fantasies.

To further expand the scope of this investigation, information regarding the personality characteristics and life experiences of the various types of offenders and nonoffenders participating in this study were collected and subjected to statistical analyses. Douglas N. Jackson's (1967) Personality Research Form--Form E was used to investigate the personality characteristics, and a Background Information Questionnaire developed by Alberta Hospital, Edmonton[2] and revised by this author was implemented to obtain knowledge concerning each individual's reported life experiences. The final analysis involved establishing whether any relationship between an individual's sexual fantasies and personality characteristics would be found to exist. Establishment of multifactor relationships, if found, would suggest the need for future aggregate, rather than univariate analyses, when investigating what factors may contribute to an individual's propensity to commit a criminal offence.

It is important to note that this investigation will predominantly focus upon acquiring knowledge surrounding individuals who commit some type of sexual assault, despite inclusion of individuals who have committed various other offences. The premise underlying this focus rests upon the intent to develop a research instrument which may contribute to understanding the nature of the sexual offender's sexual fantasies and whether these fantasies may be related to the actual commission of a sexual offence. If a relationship exists between one's thoughts and one's actions, alteration of one's sexual fantasies may be an important adjunct in the assessment and treatment of individuals inclined to commit a sexual offence.

It is this author's belief that one's thoughts precede one's actions and that sexual offenders harbor discernible sexual fantasies, which function to liberate their developed (and in some cases, inherent) inclinations to commit a sexual offence. Acceptance of the proposition that fantasies influence one's behavior necessarily prompts the development of appropriate assessment instruments and therapeutic strategies directed towards restructuring an individual's "deviant" fantasies. The need for this type of research is clearly demonstrated by the paucity of empirical investigation and methodological difficulties existent throughout the literature on the sexual fantasies held by individuals who commit crimes of sexual violence (Amir, 1971; Beard-Denning & Eppy, 1981; Beneke, 1982; Blader & Marshall, 1989; Groth, 1979; Kozma & Zuckerman, 1983; Levine & Koenig, 1980, McConaghy, 1989; Sarday, 1981, 1982; Shorkey, 1978). Despite the prevalent difficulties in conducting this type of research, sexual offences remain an increasingly wide spread social problem, which yields wide ranging economic, emotional, and judicial consequences for the nonoffending members of society (Boyle, 1984; Golstein et al., 1980; Kinnon, 1981; Porteous, 1984; Philip, 1987).

As a means to respond to the presence of this social problem, this author will attempt to: (1) acquire knowledge surrounding the nature and development of a sex offender; (2) investigate the nature and content of sexual fantasies reported by sex offenders as compared to other criminal offenders and nonoffenders; (3) further assess the utility of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist in delineating characteristic fantasies between various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders; (4) investigate whether common characteristics in personality exist between various types of criminal offenders; (5) determine if a relationship between one's personality characteristics and sexual fantasies exists; and (6) acquire knowledge of specific life events that may of may not have an influence on an individual who is inclined to partake in a criminal activity.

Research Questions

In order to achieve the goals of this study, the following research questions were posed:

1. Do sexual offenders differ from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders in their reported sexual fantasies?

2. What discriminates between the fantasy content described by sexual offenders in comparison to other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders?

3. Do sexual offenders differ from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders on a measure of personality characteristics?

4. What discriminates between the personality characteristics reported by sexual offenders in comparison to other criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders?

5. Does a relationship exist between one's reported sexual fantasies and items descriptive of personality characteristics?

6. What discriminates between the relationship of personality characteristics and sexual fantasies reported by sex offenders as compared to other criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders? and,

7. What background factors appear to be influential in the development of an individual who commits a sexual assault as compared to other types of criminal offenders and to individuals who have never committed any type of criminal offence?

Attempts to provide answers to the questions posed above were the major focus of this research. In order to achieve these goals, the use of specific measurement instruments, which would directly investigate the individual's reported sexual fantasies, personality characteristics, and background history, were required. A second purpose of this study was to further the development, and assess the utility of a clinically valuable measurement device investigating one's sexual fantasies, which was initially developed by this author in a Masters Thesis study conducted in 1986. Hence, the multipurpose nature of this research project requires further refinement of the research questions cited above. These refinements will be conducted in appropriate chapters throughout this dissertation. At this point, it is only necessary that the reader recognize that this research is focused upon acquiring knowledge regarding sexual offenders, the nature of their sexual fantasies, personality characteristics, and background life experiences. Justification for this type of research lies in: (1) the paucity of information on sexual offenders currently available; (2) the research findings exhibited by this author's (1986) Masters thesis study; and, (3) the increased recognition that sexual assault is predominating as a relatively unrecognized and poorly understood social problem, prevalent in our society.

Overview

The area of investigation for this study is introduced in this first chapter with an emphasis on delineating specific questions related to the topic of study. Chapter Two reviews literature pertinent to enhancing one's understanding of sex offenders. In Chapter Three the research methodology and measurement instruments utilized in the present study are delineated. Chapter Four presents the results obtained in the statistical analyses and Chapter Five presents a summary of the findings obtained in this research and provides conclusions derived from the obtained results.

II. CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

The focus of this literature review is primarily on identifying the dynamics surrounding a sexual offence, the sexual offender and their sexual fantasies. In order to accomplish this task, literature pertaining to the relevance of fantasies and other internal and external influences, will be reviewed.

Motives Underlying Rape

Groth and Birnbaum (1979) claim that the individual who commits a sexual assault (although not currently a legal term, sexual assault is ofter referred to as rape by lay people and professionals and hence will be used interchangeably in this paper), does so in an attempt to counteract feelings of inadequacy and anxiety regarding his competency as a man. Other authors argue that rape functions to; express unresolved conflicts (Groth, 1979, 1985; Herman, 1981; Longo, 1982; Lowen, 1983); compensate for parental rejection or childhood sexual abuse (Groth, 1979, 1985; Longo, 1982; Lowen, 1983); restore one's sense of power and control (Groth, 1985; Lowen, 1983; Sgroi, 1985) and; strengthens one's sense of self-identity and self-esteem (Groth, 1979).

The most frequently postulated underlying motivation is cited as the rapist's attempt to gain control, power and dominance over women (Goldstein et al., 1980). Supplemental motives are contended to include: envy, rage, contempt and hatred for women (Altrocchi, 1980); desires to punish or "get even" with women (Levine & Koenig, 1980); beliefs that women desire to be raped and will fall in love with their "conqueror" (Levine & Koenig, 1980); a means to increase the rapist's sense of acceptability and worthiness (Lowen, 1983); gratify a need for attention and recognition (Groth, 1985); fulfill dependency needs and reduce fears of abandonment (Herman, 1981) and; recognition of one's sexual prowess and masculinity (Groth, 1979; Rush, 1980). Underlying each of these postulated motives appears the offender's attempt to compensate some unmet need or psychological inadequacy. Attempts to compensate for one's personal inadequacies may not be "abnormal" however, the chosen strategy is both inadequate and harmful to others. Gratification through exploitation and domination over a "helpless" victim is unacceptable behavior for which the offender must be held accountable.

It is important to note that a small number of offenders rape in order to satisfy sadistic tendencies. In these cases, the aggression itself may become eroticized. Gratification in brutalizing and degrading the victim itself becomes eroticized, and satisfies the offenders' sadistic character disposition (Cleckley, 1982; Groth, 1979; Lowen, 1983). Thus, commission of a rape in these instances appears to be the offender's attempt to gratify an erotic urge through extreme sexual aggression.

In addition to underlying psychological motivations, researchers have suggested sociological motives as the underlying impetus for the rape crime. These authors argue that rape functions as a political maneuver for men to attain power over women as a class (Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1976).

Susan Brownmiller (1975), in Against Our Will, stated:

> The act of rape then is considered to be in the interest of all men, regardless of their differences. Tactically, rapists are simply the shock troops that do the dirty work for all men in the largest sustained battle the world has ever known (p. 209).

Hence, the motive underlying rape is contended to be a universal anger aimed towards exploiting women and holding them in an inferior class position.

In summary of the research delineating motives for the commission of a sexual assault; psychological, environmental and sociological factors, are most commonly cited. A common thread throughout the various motives is the apparent power-oriented (rather than sexually oriented) function which serves to, gratify the unmet underlying need, as expressed by the sexual assault. However, agreement regarding the nature of the underlying need or motive does not currently exist. Rather, it seems most unlikely that motives for rape may be understood unidimensionally (Cohen et al., 1977) and human nature accepted as simply driven by power motivations (MacDonald, 1971).

In light of the lack of agreement regarding the underlying motive(s) in rape, this author will assume that the rapist is driven by a complexity of motivations. As a result of adopting this assumption, it becomes necessary to investigate psychological theories, which attempt to delineate the etiological factors leading to the development of rape and the rapist.

The Psychological Approach

Psychological approaches to the development of rape generally focus on the offender as the unit of analysis. Although overlap in the theories occurs, emphasis upon specific causal factors serves to provide for the subjective classification of these theories into three characteristic but nonconclusive types, including: the psychoanalytic, psychiatric and psychological.

The Psychoanalytic Approach

Psychoanalytic theories of the etiology of rape assume the instinctual nature of human sexuality and focus upon the importance of early childhood traumas, which determine subsequent deviant sexual behaviors. Rape is believed to emerge from the unresolved Oedipal complex (Amir, 1971; MacDonald, 1971). Castration fears and mother-hatred are postulated as key elements in the development of the rapist. The rapist, angry at his mother, is said to displace his aggression onto the woman who is the victim of the rape (Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1976). The classic psychoanalytic position proposes that:

> the failure to solve the Oedipus complex creates castration fears of impotency, sexual inadequacy, and homosexuality. These are coupled with the failure to integrate aggressive elements within the ego structure and may be acted out in the form of rape (Amir, 1971, p. 308).

Generating the Oedipus complex is the presence of a seductive mother. Resulting is a symbolic attack on the mother in the form of forcible rape-conquest over the despicable rejecting female of their childhood (Amir, 1971; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979).

Psychoanalytic theories cannot be empirically tested as the unconscious cannot be directly measured. Therefore, acceptance of psychoanalytic theories of rape rests upon subjective interpretations, which are fraught with tautological reasoning (Amir, 1971). Because psychoanalytic theories remain untestable, other explanations must be sought that will allow the investigator a more concrete grasp on factors which he can manipulate, rather than those like the unconscious, which he cannot.

The psychiatric approach

Like psychoanalytic theories, traditional psychiatric theories assume the instinctual nature of sexuality and the importance of early childhood experiences. Psychiatric theories differ in their emphasis on the problem solving aspects of the subsequent behavior:

> the origin of internal conflict and the adaptive and learning mechanisms which produce substitute and symbolic behavior (Amir, 1971, p. 294).

Psychiatric theories view rape as a reactive attack on the mother figure (Cohen et al., 1977). The genesis of the rape is mediated through the development of rape fantasies within the offender. Amir (1971) attempted to explain the manner in which fantasies evolve and result in a sexual offense:

> Fantasies may be associated with nonsexual factors or situations leading to sexual passion, which in turn may be connected to wishes to dominate the arousal of which may neutralize all inhibitions and lead to violence. Or fantasies may create psychic conditions and arouse a tension which is only relieved by the sexual attack (p.295).

Thus, whether the fantasies decrease inhibitions to rape or stimulate tensions to rape, they are hypothesized to mediate thoughts and turn them into action. Therefore, psychiatric theorists argue that internal drives, early childhood experiences and hatred towards the mother figure, are mediated through fantasy. Fantasy leads to the arousal of tensions and/or reduction of inhibitions that ultimately result in the commission of rape and the development of the rapist.

Psychiatric studies on fantasy and sexual behavior may be traced at least as far back as Sigmund Freud in 1905 who informed the world that very small children had strong erotic drives. Freud contended that children claiming to be victims of incest were merely acting out the pleasure principle "in vivo", the product of their fantasies and oedipal fears. In 1928, Carl J. Jung wrote:

> Just as sexuality can express itself inappropriately in phantasies, so creative phantasy can be inappropriately expressed in sexuality (p.152).

Jung (1928) defined fantasies as the products of our imagination, and that in a child's development domination by the pleasure principle is foremost. Action therefore is realization of the most satisfactory fantasy (Jung, 1974). Thus, rape develops as an attempt to satisfy the pleasure principle.

Investigation of the importance of rape fantasies in the development of the rapist was conducted by Levine and Koenig in 1980. In a review of prison interviews of convicted rapists, they concluded that rapists develop when their perceptions of fantasy and reality become intermixed.

The presence of an extremely flimsy barrier between fantasy and reality within these men is the key ingredient separating rapists from equally hostile men who do not rape.

After investigating self-reported fantasies by convicted rapists, Beneke (1982) concluded that:

> Rape is revenge: when they examine their own rape fantasies some men find their origin in revenge. Some men feel that women have enormous power in their appearance and that rape is getting even (p.19).

Ultimately, what occurs is the acting out of fantasy in reality; and the victim of rape is believed to be symbolic of the hated female, in some cases postulated as the seductive mother.

In summary, psychiatric theories of the etiology of rape stress features of the postulated unresolved Oedipal complex. The rape occurs as a reactive attempt to gain control or mastery over an unresolved sexual trauma experienced in childhood. These traumatic experiences influence the development of rape fantasies which contain hostility directed towards the mother or mother figure. Ultimately, the fantasy is acted out in real life in an attempt to resolve the unconscious conflict that continually haunts the offender.

It is important to note that psychiatric theories suffer from some of the same limitations as psychoanalytic theories. Reliance upon unconscious processes and symbolic targets does not allow for empirical testing (Kozma &

Zuckerman, 1983) and symbolism is a psychoanalytic construct, which is impossible to objectively measure.

Furthermore, reliance upon self-report measures is a subjective process that depends upon accurate recall and awareness of internal processes. The offenders may not understand or remember their fantasies and it is likely that they may be reporting what they believe the researcher desires to hear. Familiarity with psychiatric terms became widespread through the popularization of Freud and psychoanalytic theory. The Oedipal complex is commonly acknowledged and easily utilized as a rationalization for unacceptable actions.

Another limitation in psychiatric theories is that the utilized sample bases are very small. Many of the studies focus only on small samples of convicted rapists who may seriously underrepresent rapists in the population. Claims by convicted rapists may be different from claims made by nonconvicted rapists as a result of their state of freedom, experiences with treatment and motivations to be perceived in a favorable manner by the authorities completing these types of investigations. Therefore, application of these theories necessarily must be limited to populations of convicted rapists, which is probably a very small percentage of the number of men who actually commit rape.

The psychological approach

The psychological approach to the etiology of rape emphasize various conditions, experiences and traumas from which various psychological impairments ensue, including rape. These conditions are thought to deprive the child of basic psychological needs such as security and affection and/or increase one's fears and anxieties (Amir, 1971), which become expressed through the act of rape. There are several psychological theories posited in the literature regarding the etiology of rape and the psychology of the rapist.

Altrocchi (1980) describes rape as a result of conditioning, where the rapist learns to pair pain with sexual excitement:

> The causes of sadistic and masochistic sexual behaviors are not clear. Sexual and aggressive motivations and passions, however, can easily become entangled . . . Conditioning - that is early experiences in which pain was paired with sexual excitement - or hostility toward the opposite sex may be causal factors. In some cases, sadistic sexual behavior is just one aspect of a major breakdown or a life of violence (p. 495).

Thus, males may be socially conditioned or programmed to believe that pain and violence are a way of achieving rewards (Sanday, 1981), in particular, sexual rewards.

Developmentally, this conditioning is said to occur when parents provide "double talk" and subtle messages indicating expected future misdeeds by the child (MacDonald, 1971). Dire warnings of future sexual misconduct teach the child that he is not to be trusted and is expected to sexually misbehave. In order to receive reinforcement the child fulfills his parents expectations and the cycle of sexual deviance is begun (MacDonald, 1971). The reinforcement the child receives is conditional love based on his misbehavior.

Another source of conditioning is found to occur when the presence of an aggressive cue (a woman) stimulates the occurrence of an aggressive response (rape). Individuals may take on aggressive cue value if they have repeatedly been associated with observed violence:

> viewing sexually aggressive films might facilitate subsequent aggression toward females because repeated association of females with the victim of observed violence increases the aggression-eliciting stimulus properties of a female (Donnerstein, 1980).

Thus, the continual pairing of women, violence and sex is said to influence the proclivity to rape. This hypothesis will be further investigated in the pornography section of this paper. Suffice it is to say that a likely factor in the development of a rapist is his learning a deviant sexual preference that may have been conditioned from early childhood by a variety of sources (Donnerstein, 1980; Dreiblatt, 1982). Anthropological studies support the contention that rewarding aggressive sexual tendencies provides conditioning for men to rape (Sanday, 1981). For example:

> Among the Kikuyu of East Africa, it is reported that in former times, as part of initiation, every boy was expected to perform the act of ceremonial rape called "Kuikaka Muunya" (to smear oneself with salt earth) in order to prove his manhood. It was thought that until a boy had performed the act of rape he could not have lawful intercourse with a Kikuyu woman and hence could not marry (Sanday, 1982, p. 541).

In a sense, the boy-child learns that women are mere objects by which to prove their manhood; that sexual violence in conquering a woman (the object) is acceptable and perhaps a necessity to prove that one is a "real man".

A second type of psychological approach focuses on the need systems of rapists as compared to "non-rapists". Scott (1982) compared 20 convicted rapists with 20 violent non-sex offenders in a United States prison population. Testing the subjects using the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, The Thematic Apperception Test and a semi-structured interview, and basing his data on Murray's (1938) Need System, Scott concluded that the overall need systems of the rapists differed significantly from the non-rapists. Scott concluded that rapists have a strong need to feel guilty and need to be punished for wrongdoings, but also desire to dominate others. He further described rapists as non-conforming, independent and critical of those in positions of power. Scott claimed that their need systems reflect unresolved dependency conflicts and that dominance of women is the rapists attempt to deal with internal anxiety and insecurity. Therefore, the rapist's development is influenced by internal inadequacies that impair his ability to form attachments to others.

The question of how this need system develops was addressed by Scott who provided some case illustrations that typically depict the rapist as an unwanted child who was continuously neglected or beaten. Resulting fantasies of hurting women developed that they ultimately carried out in real life. Although Scott's results appear conclusive, not all rapists were unwanted or abused children, rendering the need for further research.

Psychometric Studies

In addition to developing psychological theories of the etiology of rape, psychometric studies investigating personality characteristics, environmental influences and psychophysiological patterns began to emerge in the early 1900s.

Psychometric studies investigating personality characteristics generally, but not exclusively, regard personality as a "construct" created to describe determinants of behavior. For example, simple observation of our own behavior would reveal that it varies according to the situation that we are in. Despite this variance in behavior we would regard ourselves as the same person. Thus, both change and stability in behavior in the face of environmental variation constitutes the essence of what is known as the "self"; that there is one person underneath the various behaviors exhibited. Similar observations of others would reveal the same variations and consistencies across situations, rendering predictability of another's behavior to be somewhat tenuous. Despite this variability, attempts to predict the behavior of others is a core function in psychological inquiries and constitutes the foundation for what is known as personality assessment:

> Thus, in both the perception of our own behavior and the perception of the behavior of others we see pattern and regularity in the face of diversity and variability, and we draw conclusions about "personality characteristics" while recognizing the importance of "situational" differences. (Pervin, 1984, p. 5)

Therefore, defining personality rests upon an assumption that it is a measurable entity, and personality characteristics are operationally defined by the instruments which measure them.

Historically, researchers have utilized measurement instruments which investigate either personality "types" or personality "traits". Where assessment of "types" focuses upon classifying individuals into discrete and discontinuous categories (i.e. such as endomorph, mesomorph, etc.), the assessment of "traits" orders individuals along continuous dimensions according to the degree to which a particular characteristic is present. Thus, depending upon which form of investigation is chosen, ramifications in terms of what is looked at, how it is studied, and how personality is conceptualized, results.

A second issue involved with the assessment of personality is whether measurement focuses upon internal versus external determinants of behavior:

> Historically there have been cultures that have viewed behavior as caused by forces inside the individual and other cultures that have viewed behavior as caused by forces external to the individual. (Pervin, 1984, p. 6)

Freudian psychologists' emphasis on the unknown internal forces and Skinnerian psychologists' contentions that humans react to environmental stimuli clearly depicts the distinctions between these schools of thought. However, beginning with Henry Murray's (1938) "Explorations in Personality", a new school of thought incorporating aspects of both disparate views were formed. Murray first observed that not all psychologists could be easily classified into the "centralist" (internal) versus "peripheralist" (external) schools of thought. As a result of this observation, Murray attempted to create a personality theory based upon both internal and external influences, currently known as an interactional point of view, which investigates how the characteristics of the person interact with characteristics of the situation. Given the continuous nature of this type of investigation, measurement instruments developed upon this premise focus upon delineating specific "traits" descriptive of the person's "self". As this study attempts to investigate the dynamics, both internally (i.e. one's thoughts) and externally (i.e. one's environmental experiences) relevant to the individual, the measurement of personality "traits" from an interactionist perspective appears to be a logical point, from which to begin. Therefore, personality will be defined as a measurable entity which refers to:

> . . . a unique organization of traits characterizing an individual, and influencing his interaction with his environment, social and nonsocial (cf. Kleinmuntz, 1967). Thus, the emphasis is upon motives and behavioral patterns serving to differentiate people, particularly in a social context. (Jackson in Wolman, 1974, p. 775)

In reflection of this definition, the assessment of personality, therefore, rests upon the investigation of an individual's "traits", which may be defined in the following manner:

> Traits are viewed as more or less discrete characteristics which involve a particular level or a particular quantity of a propensity or probability for behaving in a certain way. (Jackson in Wolman, 1974, p. 778)

Underlying this definition is the assumption that traits are a continuous entity, which are homogeneous in nature, but may vary to a greater or lesser degree. Thus, personality assessment refers to the measurement of "traits", which are believed to be characteristics underlying the behavior of an individual and serve to influence the individual's interaction with his or her environment.

Two psychometric studies (Fisher & Rivlin, 1971; Scott, 1982) demonstrated that sex offenders exhibited high needs for abasement and low needs for autonomy. In contrast to Scott's sample, Fisher and Rivlin's sample of sex offenders exhibited higher needs for succorance, nurturance and endurance and lower needs for change, heterosexuality and aggression. As a result of these findings, Fisher and Rivlin described rapists as less: aggressive, self-assured, achievement-oriented, independent, self-directed, heterosexually driven and desiring of change; and more in need to: endure, self-criticize, and depend upon and/or exhibit nurturance to others. Although Fisher and Rivlin's 1971 study did not exhibit completely consistent results with Scott's 1982 study, they failed to control for violence of the offenders (as did Scott) and thus, may not be an entirely appropriate sample from which to make "cross-studies comparisons".

In particular contrast was Scott's findings that rapists have higher dominance needs and lower nurturance needs, which were not shown in Rivlin and Fisher's sample, despite the logical fit with which these attributes appear to characterize an actual act of rape. Sampling bias was postulated by Scott to account for this discrepancy, however, Scott's sample exhibited limitations as well, as only 20 out of 80 individual rapists sampled agreed to participate suggesting the presence of a highly selected group. Future research using a broader based sample may help resolve the discrepancy exhibited in these results. As a means to investigate this discrepancy, use of Jackson's (1971) Personality Research Form, which delineates the "needs" and "presses" (environmental influences) salient within an individual's personality and behavior will be employed in this study. Furthermore, sampling a variety of sex offenders, non-sexual offenders and nonoffenders will be completed as a means to investigate the discrepancy (lack of control for violence) described above.

Other psychometric assessments have been utilized in attempts to provide data-based descriptions of the psychological makeup of various types of offenders. Historical reliance upon the MMPI has focused upon:

> interpretations of single-scale scores or mean profiles, the multivariate analysis of multiple scales, and the construction of special scales and scoring schemes (Goldberg, 1972; Heilbrun, 1979; Huesman, Lefkowitz & Eron, 1978; Holland, Beckett & Levi, 1981; Holland & Holt, 1975; Megargee & Bohn, 1979) (Erickson, Luxenberg, Walbek & Seely, 1987, p. 566).

However, MMPI studies of sex offenders have relied almost exclusively upon the interpretation of mean scale scores or profile scores as compared to the average scores of other offender groups. This means that following analysis of the profiles, results are generalized to the group (i.e. a sample of rapists equals all rapists), which has perpetuated oversimplification and stereotypic presentations of psychological characteristics of any one particular group (Ericksen et al., 1987); despite the known heterogeneity of individuals classified as sex offenders (Blader & Marshall, 1989).

In attempts to address this heterogeneity, Erickson et al. (1987) assessed 568 convicted offenders of various types of sexual offenses and compared them across specific sexual offense, as well as to known data on other types of criminal offenders. Their results demonstrated that on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory: (1) 8 (Schizophrenic) - 4 (Psychopathic)/4-8 and 4 (Psychopathic) - 5 (Masculinity-Feminity)/5-4 profiles were significantly more common in the sex offender sample than in the prison sample, but 4 (Psychopathic) - 9 (Hypomania) profiles were equally prevalent in both samples; (2) sex offenders against adult women were more likely to exhibit 4 (Psychopathic) - 9 (Hypomaina)/9-4 profiles than sex offenders against children who were more likely to demonstrate 4 (Psychopathic) - 2 (Depression)/2-4 profiles; (3) no significant differences in two point code frequency between molesters of male versus female children or between intrafamilial and extrafamilial offenders against children were found; (4) within the incest group, 4 (Psychopathic) - 3 (Hysteria) profiles were most common for biological fathers, whereas 4 (Psychopathic) - 7 (Psychasthenia)/7-4 profiles were most common among the incestuous step-fathers and 4 (Psychopathic) - 2 (Depression)/2-4 and 4 (Psychopathic) - 8 (Schizophrenia)/ 8-4 profiles were more common among extrafamilial than among infrafamilial child molesters; (5) first time offenders demonstrated significantly greater variety of code types and least disturbance and recidivist offenders showed the highest frequency of overall elevated scale scores; and, (6) over 50% of all subjects were chemically dependent.

These results suggest that the MMPI profiles exhibited in this study most commonly were associated with personality disorder diagnoses and acting out behaviors, which is supportive of previous research (Tennenbaum, 1977). Support for previous research (Goff & Hubble, 1984; McCreary, 1975; Panton, 1979) demonstrating 4-2 peaks for child molesters suggests that child molesters are generally passive-dependent individuals who lack impulse control, social skills and control over substance abuse. The profile demonstrated by incestuous biological fathers 4-7/7-4 suggests insensitivity towards others, ruminative alternating with acting out behaviors and alcohol abuse proclivities. Items differentiating rapists from child molesters included childhood delinquency and "delight in getting away with crime," which the incest offenders failed to demonstrate. Despite the presence of these delineated profiles, they were found to make up no more than 21% of any offender group and were found to cross over offense groups. Furthermore, approximately 20% of all profiles were within the normal range. Except for elevations of Scale 4, no psychological characteristic was truly typical, therefore social isolation, alcoholism, and marital breakdown do not always lead up to the commission of a sexual offense, but may contribute in some cases. Therefore, Erickson et al. conclude that the MMPI fails to empirically identify individuals as sex offenders and misuse of the MMPI for this purpose is both irreprehensible as well as unethical.

Overholser and Beck (1986) utilizing multimethod assessment procedures, investigated the heterosocial skills, social anxiety, impulsivity and attitudes of rapists and child molesters in comparison to three control groups (including prisoners not convicted of a sexual offense, community based men, matched for SES, age, race and education, and a group of college men who were lacking in heterosocial skills). The three types of offenders were further matched for IQ and length of time spent in prison. Twelve male subjects per group participated in this research and the collected data was based upon behavioral observations, a physiological measure of anxiety and a series of self-report measures, including the: Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (MAACL), Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS), Self-Report Test of Impulsive Control (STIC), Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory (BDHI), Subjective Anxiety and Distress Scale (SADS), Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE), Rathus Assertiveness Inventory (RAI), Attitudes Towards Sex and Violence Scales and the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. Only significant ANCOVA findings controlling for the effects of age and time spent in prison, were reported. Results from Overholser and Becks (1986) study demonstrated that:

1. The child molesters appeared less assertive than members of the other groups as measured by the RAI;
2. The rapists and child molesters were evaluated as significantly less skilled in overall levels of social skills and conversational skills than the community based sample;
3. Child molesters displayed significantly more fear of being negatively evaluated, as measured by the FNE;
4. The college students displayed significantly higher levels of anxious behavior in behaviorally observed social interactions, than did the rapists, child molesters, and non-sex offender prison group;
5. Higher physiological levels of anxiety were displayed by the rapists as compared to the non-sex offender prison group in behavioral observations of role play scenarios requiring assertive expressions;

6. Self-report measures of hostility were not significant across groups, as measured by the MAACL and the BDHI;
7. Although no main effect was demonstrated between groups on the BIS, differences in impulsivity as measured by the STIC demonstrated that the child molesters, rapists and non-sex offender prisoners were more impulsive than the college students;
8. The child molesters exhibited significantly higher levels (more conservative) of sex role stereotyping than did the community based and college based controls;
9. No significant main effect for group was found for the sex role stereotyping scale.

This study, therefore, appears to provide support for contentions that sex offenders have deficient social skills, rapists feel anxious when required to act assertively, child molesters perceive women in stereotypic conservative terms and also fear negative evaluations from others. Of particular interest is Overholser and Beck's finding that hostility and impulsivity, as measured, failed to differentiate the sex offenders from the non-sex offenders and other two control groups. These characteristics are commonly used to describe both sexual and nonsexual offenders, but failed to appear salient in this study. Overholser and Beck (1986) attempt to explain this result by the following assertion:

> It may be that no single variable or characteristic can identify men who engage in coercive sexual activity. Instead, hostile, aggressive behavior appears to be attributable largely to individual characteristics and situational cues (Averill, 1983). For example, it may be that rapists are able to control their aggressive

> impulses unless provoked, or their inhibitions are reduced through consumption of alcohol or other drugs (p. 686).

Their inclusion of the influence of alcohol and drugs rested upon their collection of descriptive data, which indicated by the subjects' self-reports, that 45% of the child molesters, 40% of the non-sex offender prisoners convicted of property crimes, 100% of the non-sex offender prisoners convicted of violent crimes against a person and 80% of the rapists admit having used drugs or alcohol at the time of their offenses. From this study, factors appearing influential in the commission of a criminal offense appear to be multiply determined by both internal and environmental influences. Furthermore, the utility of employing multimethod assessment devices was demonstrated to increase our understanding of the dynamics influencing the commission of various types of criminal offenses.

Langevin, Handy, Paitich and Russon (1985) studied the relative contribution of aggressiveness and sexual anomalies to rape using measures of personality, criminal, aggressive and sexual histories and reported parent-child relations. From their review of the literature, most MMPI personality profiles characteristic of aggressors were found to be the 4-8 (Psychopathic Deviate-Schizophrenic) high point pair, but the rapists exhibited various profiles with prominence exhibited only on the Psychopathic Deviant subscale (Scale

4) with deviations variously demonstrated on Depression (Scale 2), Schizophrenia (Scale 8) and Paranoia (Scale 6). Antisocial Personality Disorder was the most frequent diagnosis reported for the rapists (30 to 40%, Rada, 1978), theft and nonsexual assaults predominate their previous criminal records, a violent and alcoholic family environment and individual offender abuse of alcohol in approximately one third of the rapists themselves, were described.

Langevin et al. (1985) proposed that sexual history has been identified in the literature as one of the most discriminating axis upon which to delineate sexual and nonsexual assaulters, citing phallometric studies and sexual dysfunction research to support these contentions. Using Multivariate Analysis of Variance procedures, Langevin et al. (1985b) investigated the history of aggression and presence of sexual anomalies of 40 rapists, 40 nonviolent sex offenders, 40 normal controls and 25 nonsexual assaultive offenders. All subjects received the Clarke Sexual History Questionnaire (SHQ) for males, the MMPI, the Cattell 16 PF, the Clarke Parent Child Relations (PCR) Questionnaire, and medical records were tabulated for history on crime and violence.

The results from their research demonstrated that on measures of personality, the rapists and assaultive offenders were significantly similar in that both groups exhibited strong emotional disturbances reflected in the following symptomology:

> Both groups tended to be depressed, suspicious, ruminating, worrying, confused, and higher in energy compared to nonassaultive groups. Rapists contrasted with assaultive men in having more bodily concerns, being more feminine, somewhat less energetic, and more introverted (Langevin et al., 1985b, pp. 23-24).

The only observed difference between the rapist and assaultive groups was on the Paranoia Scale, where the assaulters were significantly more paranoid than the rapists, but both groups were more paranoid than the two nonviolent groups. The results on the 16PF substantiated their claims, however the factor measuring sexual anomalies was not found to discriminate between groups. Personality characteristics on the 16PF were described as follows:

> The assaultive and rapists groups together were less outgoing (Factor A) and less intelligent (Factor B), less emotionally stable (Factor C), were more suspicious (Factor L), more practical (Factor M), shrewder (Factor N), more apprehensive (Factor O), showed less control (Factor Q3) and were tenser (Factor Q4) than the other two groups (Langevin et al. 1985b, p. 25).

In terms of psychiatric diagnosis, three quarters of the rapists and assaulters were diagnosed as Personality Disordered in contrast to only one third of the sexually anomalous group and only 20% of rapists, 24% of assaulters and 3% of the sexual anomaly group were diagnosed as Antisocial Personality Disorder. Only 28% of the assaulters and 10% of the rapists received a diagnosis related to alcohol, which is lower than has previously been demonstrated in other offender research. In terms of parent-child relations, similar patterns between rapists and assaulters were found including: low identification to both parents, especially with the mother; low demonstrations of affection by parents, parental alcoholism and paternal criminal history, childhood running away patterns, but no evidence of parental sexual abuse.

In regard to sexual history, the rapists exhibited the greatest similarity to the sexually anomalous group with findings that both groups exposed, peeped, made obscene phone calls and frottaged. Both groups were found to more frequently engage in sexual experiences outside their marriages and the rapists demonstrated the greatest frequency of masturbating while dressed in female attire. However, Langevin et al. (1985b) using two versions of the SHQ with 25% of the subject sample found inconsistent results suggesting that with the old SHQ, sexual anomalies will more frequently be found for rapists, whereas with the revised SHQ, the results are more tenuous, suggesting the presence of instrumental variance in these results. Finally no differences in impotence or other sexual dysfunctions were demonstrated, failing to provide support for theoretical contentions suggesting this factor as influential in rape. Langevin et al. (1985b) conclude from their results that:

> Their violent history, abuse of alcohol, poor socialization as children, and their higher sexual "drive" would seem to be major factors that predispose them collectively to rape (p. 34).

Distinguishing features identified by Lipton, McDonell and McFall (1987) included deviant sexual arousal; deviant, callous attitude towards women; and deficient heterosexual skills and knowledge. More specifically, results supporting specific deficits in decoding skills in social situations of rapists were found to be associated with increased likelihood of rape. Social skills deficits have been found in previous studies (Freeman-Longo & Wall, 1986), however, self-assertion deficits have not always been found in offender research (Segal & Marshall, 1985).

Cohen et al. (1970) classified various types of rapists to various DSM-II psychiatric categories based upon a subjective descriptive analysis. Despite limitations in this type of methodology, they delineate: (1) Aggressive-driven Rapists as similar to the Explosive Personality Disorder described in DSM-II with added features including pervasive hostility towards women and compulsive, repetitious drives as predominant; (2) Sexually-driven Rapists are related to DSM-II's Inadequate Personality Disorder, however, observed extensive sexual perversions was added to the description; and, (3) Rape-Sex-Aggressors

(Sexual Sadists) most clearly identified with the diagnostic category Antisocial Personality Disorder. Little research to date, however, has provided replication for these findings. Nevertheless, the assertion that rape is an act sometimes committed to express aggressive impulses, sexual impulses or a combination of the two appears to be regaining prominence in current investigations.

Four general categories of sex offenders have been identified by Dr. Alan Weston of the Regional Psychiatric Center in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, including: (1) Normal Sex Offenders who are described as psychologically sound who because of circumstances such as alcohol or drug use become involved with a sex related crime: "Approximately 50% of first offenders exhibit no unusual characteristics" (Weston, 1980, p. 14); (2) Personality Disordered--Between 40 to 60% of criminal offenders have been diagnosed as Personality Disordered demonstrating most frequently an inability to relate or communicate well with others and nonconformance to societal values, rendering an Antisocial Personality diagnoses; (3) Deviants--these offenders appear normal in every other aspect of their behavior, aside from their impulsively expressed sexual deviancy; and, (4) Psychotic offenders, who constitute a very small percentage of sex offenders.

Categorization of stranger rapes, versus victims known to assailants, have also been investigated. Stranger rapes have been found to account for as high as 44% of all rapes of women over 15 in Wisconsin during 1985 (Reboussin, 1985), 56% of rapes studied by Holmstrom and Burgess (1980) were stranger rapes and Prentky, Burgess and Carter (1986) revealed between 41.9% to 82.1% of stranger rapes prevalent depending upon the type of rapist involved; that is, compensatory, exploitative, displaced-anger or sadistic. In a study of serial rapists (greater than 10 offenses) Hazelwood, Reboussin and Warren (1989) studied 41 incarcerated rapists who had victimized strangers and concluded that the modus operandi used in each rape changed little over time:

> There is no overall change over time in the amount of force used, the pleasure experienced by the rapist, the number of victim injuries incurred, or the time devoted to the assault itself . . . Despite variations in victim characteristics and behavior, the behavior and experience of the rapist remained consistent over a surprisingly long period of time and a disconcertingly high number of rapes (Hazelwood et al., 1989, p. 75).

This suggests that the rapists methodically plot their assaults prior to commission or else ritually act out a premeditated scenario across assaults. Ten of the rapists studied by Hazelwood et al., however, were observed to significantly increase the force used over time and were described as a separate group of sadistic offenders. These individuals had a higher number of overall assaults (average number of victims equaled 40 as compared to the others who averaged 22 victims). They also raped more frequently (every 19 days as compared to every 55 days), tended to inflict moderate to fatal injuries and performed anal intercourse to an extent three times more frequently than the other offenders. This group appeared to be sadistically motivated and more dangerous, but did not differ from the other offenders on developmental indices. Nevertheless, the majority of serial rapists in this study used only minimal force and inflicted only minimal physical injury. Thus, Hazelwood et al. (1989) conclude that future studies investigating serial rapists should differentiate between "increasers" and "nonincreasers" to obtain more accurate information about the various types of rapists currently recognized to exist. Overall, studies on serial rapists contend that their acts are dependent upon compensatory, exploitative, displaced anger and/or sadistic motives.

In summary, it appears from this plethora of psychological investigations, that large discrepancies across studies prevail and, therefore, fail to produce a comprehensive understanding of the development and/or psychological characteristics of the sexual offender. Use of various measurement instruments, diagnostic categorizations, noncomparable samples and lack of focus has produced more confusing, than revealing information regarding the rapist. Nevertheless, a number of factors believed to be influential determinants have been described and future research employing multivariable assessment procedures may help to clear the present confusion regarding the development of the rapist. An attempt within this study to utilize multiple assessment instruments including a measurement of personality characteristics is an initial step to address this present state of confusion.

Functions of a Rapist's Fantasy

Although sexual fantasies may facilitate sexual arousal, this does not seem to be their primary function. Instead, fantasies have been found to compensate for frustration (Zimmer, Borchardt & Fischle, 1983) and/or fulfill emotional needs not met in real life (Crepault & Couture, 1980).

Zimmer et al., (1983) assert that fantasies compensate to alleviate the individual's frustrations:

> Fantasies can include activities which seem socially unacceptable to the person and may also express wishes that are not totally unacceptable but that elicit too much anxiety to be shared with the partner,.. Fantasies are used quite often to combat aversive emotions like loneliness, anger and frustration (p. 49).

Crepault & Couture (1980) state the sexual fantasy has various functions:

> First, it can contribute to the initiation or activation of the erotic excitement. Second, it may allow partial relief of unfulfilled or unrecognizable

> desires. Third, it may serve the purpose of some unconscious psycho-affective needs (p. 566).

Thus, it appears that fantasies function to deal with stresses that have overcome the individual and aid him in survival.

Generally, the individual has the capability to induce a fantasy, recognize that the fantasy is not a reality, and stop the fantasy by will. This capacity for control, however, may not be operative in the rapist as it appears that his fantasies function, not only to alleviate stress, but appears to be a prerequisite for action. Many rapists report fantasizing about rape, and follow the fantasy with the act.

Various themes become apparent through investigation of reported fantasies of rapists. Presentation of these various themes will be followed by actual reports by rapists of their fantasies and discussion of the function each type of fantasy seems to serve.

To begin with, a predominant theme appears that it is 'okay' to rape, and if the rapist so desires, it should then be done:

> It was like a little voice saying "its all right, its all right, go ahead and rape and get your revenge . . . they even make movies of it (Beneke, 1982, p. 74).

> I already fantasized about it, thousands of times. I never planned a rape. The rapes were spontaneous but I'd fantasize about them till I knew exactly what to do (Carl in Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 51).

> So, it just seemed kind of natural to act out this fantasy that was in my head, because I kind of regarded it as reality - that's what would happen (Chris in Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 97).

> That feeling came over me, I knew I was going to do it, I don't know why, but I just did it (Ben in Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, p. 107).

> I was just thinking of having sex with her, but something bounced in my head and said 'Just do it' and I did it . . . I started saying to myself I'd have to have her . . . Every night and during the day when I'd be walking along, I'd have fantasies about raping women . . . (Ray in Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, pp. 115-120).

It appears that the fantasy to rape functions to convince the rapist that rape is morally correct and he has a right to commit the crime. The fantasy serves to convince the rapist that because he thought of rape and thought it was something okay to do, he should follow the thought with action, which he inevitably did.

A second theme arises surrounding issues of power where the rapist may capture and control his victim:

> The characteristic scenario is one in which the victim initially resists the sexual advances of her assailant; he overpowers her and achieves sexual penetration; in spite of herself, the victim cannot resist her assailants sexual prowess and becomes sexually aroused and receptive to his embrace (Groth, 1979, p. 26).

Examples of "power" fantasies that have been reported by rapists include the following:

> The fantasies would usually be violent at the beginning. I'd attack this girl and it would go on like that and then all of a sudden she would give in and it would be the start of a loving relationship. We'd be madly in love by the time I finished raping her (Steve in Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 8).

> That just fixed in my head; if I were to have sex with a woman, at some point she'd really get turned on by it, and I'd have a tremendous orgasm, and perhaps the lights would go out, even the room would shake (Chris in Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 97).

> I had this image of being the Don Juan when I would be with a woman. I figured if I could overpower her sexually, then plus my sexual gratification, I was accomplishing an ego thing where they'd want to see me again (Quentin in Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, p. 136).

The underlying search for acceptance and love, and the confusion between love and forced sex combines to systematically delude the rapist that a woman requires and desires to be dominated in order to feel intimate with a man. That they are doing women a favor by raping them pervades their attitudes and allows them to feel adequate or powerful in their fantasies. Outside of their fantasies they feel painfully inadequate. Rape fantasies and committing rape, therefore, becomes exciting. It obliterates their sense of loneliness and substitutes a sense of control for their powerlessness. This tasty morsel - conquest in return for love - is not to be self-denied.

A third type of fantasy may be classified as an anger rape. With revenge in mind, the rapist intends to hurt, humiliate or degrade the victim. The characteristic scenario is described by Groth (1979):

> this type of offender attacks his victim, grabbing her, striking her, knocking her to the ground, beating her, tearing her clothes, and raping her. He may use a blitz style of attack, a violent surprise offensive, in

> which the victim is caught completely off guard (pp. 13-14).

The angry rapist is more violent and out of control than the power rapist both in his fantasies and in his actions. Rapists who have anger fantasies describe their rape fantasies as follows:

> It was to humiliate them . . . I'd get relating her to Mom . . . Here Ma talked all this shit, and I'd get the urge to fix her (Luke in Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, p. 179).
>
> I never fantasized about rape-murder until after I was in prison . . . I certainly fantasized about hurting women though before I hurt anybody. (Carl in Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 55).
>
> For as long as I can remember my fantasies related to hurting women (Scott, 1982, p. 1124).

Several rapists reported fantasizing about hurting women that symbolically represented their wives, mothers or rejecting lovers. The resentment, thoughts of revenge, and obsession with aggression probably serve to block the rapist from having any emotions toward the person he is fantasizing about, or in actuality attacking. The fantasies allow the offender to view the human as an object (MacDonald, 1971), and anger diminishes the threat of being dominated by such an object (Crepault & Couture, 1980).

Beneke (1982) reports one rapist's graphic description which supports the hypothesis that his anger becomes uncontrollable and allows him to view the victim as an object symbolic of someone else, from whom he seeks revenge:

> It wasn't a victim no more, it was my wife . . . It was like I pulled a gun and blew her brains out, that was my fantasy,..I not only raped a girl or raped Jane in my head but I killed Jane. I killed her in my head and that was a beautiful high. When I blowed her away that day, she stayed dead for five years in my head (pp. 74-75).

A fourth type of fantasy that follows morbid, occult, violent and bizarre themes is the sadistic fantasy. The intent is to abuse and torture; the motive is punishment, destruction and/or murder. (Groth, 1979).

Reported sadistic fantasies include the following:

> The picture in my mind was one of torturing a victim with everything from matches and cigarette butts to a propane torch, electrical stimulation, needles, and so forth. I picked strangers for victims. A complete stranger is less human than someone you know (Groth, 1979, p. 56)..

> I remember in a rape when a woman attacked me, I fantasized about stabbing her with a knife in the anus - of all places. Just a degrading thought. Put her down and put her in her place for challenging me (Levine & Koenig, 1980, p. 66).

> Some of them is bitches, you know? The bitches are the type that need to be raped. They need to have it stuffed to them hard and heavy to straighten them out . . . Usually I tied them down (Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, pp. 148-149).

The nature of these violent fantasies exemplify the sadistic nature of some rapists and their lack of regard for the victim as a human being. Bondage, aggression, and mutilation are prevalent themes. This type of fantasy seems to be an extreme form of the anger rape; to control, violate and teach the victim a lesson that is their due. The thrill for the offender is not sexual but is contained within the torture inherent in their sadistic acts. The sadistic fantasy functions to increase the thrill of violence and strengthen the rapist's belief the victim requires punishment.

In summary, it appears that four themes predominate the fantasy life of the rapist. Confirmation of power, diffusion of anger, expressions of sadism to punish, and belief in the right to rape pervade the reported fantasies of rapists who have been convicted for their crimes of rape.

The importance of a rapist's fantasy life is that there appears to be a flimsy barrier between these individual's fantasy life and their life in reality. Confusion between the two spheres exist. That is, fantasy becomes reality for the rapist; it is a prerequisite for action. Their present thoughts become their future actions:

> all these attacks, I fantasized them out ahead of time. I knew exactly what I was going to do. So all I did was relive these fantasies with the girls when I actually did pick them up (Sussman & Bordwell, 1981, p. 170).

If in fact a rapist's fantasy becomes his or her reality, therapeutic measures require altering or stopping their fantasies from originally occurring in the form that they do. Themes of power, anger, sadism, and the right to rape require obliteration and alteration. Substitution of more appropriate fantasies is required. From these accounts in the literature depicting characteristic fantasies reported by rapists, empirical research delineating the content and nature of rapists sexual fantasies appears warranted. One area of recent study relevant to offender research is the influence of pornography and the mass-media upon the commission of aggressive and/or sexually-aggressive acts.

Pornography, Mass Media and Psychophysiological Arousal

Research efforts on pornography remained almost nonexistent up until the early seventies. A major turning point in this state of affairs arose out of the study conducted by the Presidential Commission on Obscenity and Pornography (1970) in the United States. This investigation concluded that: exposure to erotic stimuli produced sexual arousal in substantial proportions of men and women; no changes in reported masturbatory behaviors were found following exposure, patterns of sexual behavior were found to be stable and not altered by exposure; no effects upon established sexual attitudes or "sexual morality" occurred; that exposure did increase the frequency of erotic dreams, sexual fantasies and conversation regarding sexual issues; and, most importantly that no evidence of a relationship between exposure to erotic presentations and subsequent sexual crimes could be demonstrated (Goode & Troicken, 1974). Therefore, claims that erotica promotes and directly contributes to the commission of a sexual crime were strongly refuted by the results of the President's study. Following this study, however, inconsistent evidence arose questioning the validity of their report and a vast amount of research followed.

From this array of research, evidence suggesting direct contributory influences (Altrocchi, 1980; Beneke, 1982; Donnerstein, 1980; Eron, 1986; Feshbach & Malamuth, 1978; Huesmann & Malamuth, 1986; Levine & Koenig, 1980), intermediate contributory influences (Berkowitz, 1986; Green & Thomas, 1986; Malamuth, 1981; Malamuth & Briore, 1986; Malamuth & Donnerstein, 1984; Rule & Ferguson, 1986), immediate, but not long term influences (Donnerstein, 1980; Malamuth & Ceniti, 1986), versus no influences (Langevin et al., 1985, 1988) to sexually aggressive and/or aggressive behaviors were demonstrated. Despite these discrepancies, acceptance that pornography and media violence does have some type of influence on aggressive or sexually aggressive predisposed individuals is currently the most prevalent belief held by the majority of researchers in related fields.

Theories on Pornography

Pornography is derived from the Greek word "Pcrnea" which defined means "low whore"--a commodity which may be bought (Beneke, 1982). It is contended that pornography not only promotes viewing women as commodities, but influences the perception of women as visual surfaces rather than human beings (Beneke, 1982). Rape will develop when men become obsessed with these images in the following way:

> Clearly, boys and young teenagers learn to regard a woman's body as valued visual property, which they can at times get to enjoy for free. In the conception of sex as a commodity, sex is something a man can buy, sell, get for free or steal (rape). Similarly, a woman as visual property can be treated as a commodity to be bought, sold, gotten for free, or stolen (Beneke, 1982: 27).

Beneke (1982) described how pornographic depictions influence the development of rapists. He argues that in addition to pornography; advertising, television and fiction novels contain "rape signs" which promote the exploitation of women. These signs become validated attitudes that insult women and make them legitimate targets of rape. These attitudes held by the rapist are therefore held as prime determinants in his development.

An example of a pervasive "rape sign" is the cave-man cartoon commonly found in men's magazines, which promotes the attitude that it is funny and macho to rape:

> Such cartoons clearly portray a man trying to force sex on a woman; they clearly suggest that such situations are funny. They exploit the widely held belief that if a man and a woman know each other, or if the man has no weapon, it's not really rape if the man forces sex upon the woman. Yet we seldom connect such cartoons to rape (Beneke, 1982, p. 10).

Another contention is that pornography provides conditioning, associating women with sexual violence that becomes a learned sexual preference. Donnerstein (1980) studied 120 male college undergraduates who were identified through a self-report questionnaire, as likely or not likely to rape. The two groups were presented with erotic and nonerotic films, then given a chance to act aggressively against a female confederate (known as the "Buss Paradigm"). Donnerstein concluded that aggressive-erotic stimuli were at least in part responsible for aggressive responses against women. He concluded that aggression resulted through the female's association to the victim in the film--making her an aggressive cue stimulus that may elicit an aggressive response. Further research, varying the sexual identity of the film victim and confederate were completed by Berkowitz, 1986; Green & Thomas, 1986; and Malamuth, 1978 providing substantiating, but not conclusive support for Donnerstein's contentions.

Several researchers argue that pornography legitimizes rape (Beneke, 1982; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Sussman & Bordwell, 1981), promotes the view of women and children as powerless (Groth, 1979) and that rapists recognize pornography as a way of legitimizing their crime (Levine & Koenig, 1980; Sussman & Bordwell, 1981). Explicit depictions of the sexual expression of power, anger and control abound throughout portrayals of child-bondage, sadomasochism and sexual abuse found in pornographic magazines. The "participants" obviously do not occupy the same status in issues of consent, power, or control. Pornography often portrays women and children as "love-slaves" whose destiny it is to serve man. This pro-sexual abuse is vicious propaganda which primes the "powerless" female and child as the preferred targets for the power-seeking individual. Offender research reveals varying degrees of pornographic influences. Some rapists stated that pornography had no influence, or little influence in their crimes (Malamuth, 1981). Others argued that pornography gave them specific ideas, influenced their fantasies of rape, which ultimately were acted out in real life (Levine & Koenig, 1980). Results from the Master's thesis completed by this author (Furman, 1986) demonstrated that the sex offenders reported various utilization of pornography, from consistent use to no use of pornographic stimuli at any point prior to commission of their offense. However, the offenders who did report use of pornography, further indicated that immediately prior to their offense, the frequency of utilization increased to "obsessional" proportions (ranging from daily to hourly perusal) as a means to enhance their arousal and fantasy stimulation.

Theories and empirical research promoting the view that pornography and media violence evokes an intermediate effect on one's proclivity to complete an aggressive and/or sexually aggressive act has evolved from the various studies completed by Neil Malamuth and his various associates.

Malamuth (1981) argued that pornography is hate literature against women that commonly promotes the attitude that women wish to be raped. In a study of 29 male college undergraduates Malamuth (1981) conducted a two (exposure) by two (orientation) by two (instruction) by two (experimenter) analysis of variance on penile tumescence and arousal levels to scenes of rape and consensual sex. He found that exposure to rape scenes stimulated rape fantasies in some subjects. However, it was not specified whether the arousal was due to the rape, the violence, or both. Nevertheless, these results suggested that violent sexual scenes, may in some cases, stimulate rape fantasies that contribute to future deviant sexual conduct. Malamuth and his colleagues contend that sexual arousal and aggressive erotica become "conditioned" and aggression towards women (the erotic cue) decreases aggressive inhibitions in cultures where sex and aggression are commonly linked in pornographic and media portrayals (Feshbach & Malamuth, 1978; Malamuth et al., 1980). These studies were based upon immediate effects to single presentations of rape scenes, however, studies investigating repeated presentations over a period of several weeks with four aggressive-pornographic feature length movies (Ceniti & Malamuth, 1984) failed to exhibit a sexual-arousal enhancement effect of exposure to aggressive pornography. As a result of this discrepancy, individual differences in likelihood to rape, was postulated as contributing to the variance and a series of studies examining individual differences (including attitudes and aggressive inclinations) in susceptibility to the influences of pornographic media arose (Briere & Malamuth, 1982; Check & Malamuth, 1980; Malamuth, 1981; Malamuth & Check, 1980). The results of these studies consistently demonstrated a relationship between one's immediately reported likelihood to rape and callous attitudes towards rape, belief in rape myths and hostility towards women in individuals aroused by aggressive pornography.

Malamuth and Ceniti in 1986 examined relatively long term effects of repeated exposure to violent and nonviolent pornography and the results failed to demonstrate any significant effect on laboratory aggression against women. As a result Malamuth and Ceniti (1986) concluded that:

> It may be that exposure to violent pornography might have an immediate impact on aggressive behavior against women but this effect may dissipate quickly over time (p. 135).

These results are consistent with Berkowitz's (1986) contentions that mass media exposures produce only short-lived effects as a result of both the internal condition (i.e. aggressive behavioral inclinations) of the viewer and availability of situational cues strengthening responses prior to and following exposure. More specifically, Berkowitz contends that: individuals who find viewing aggressive acts as gratifying and pleasurable, who are affectively aroused (i.e. feeling angry and hostile) or have learned to associate aggressive behaviors with positive reinforcement conditions (as delineated by Bandura's social learning theory), and are subjected to external conditions including: exposure to violence (i.e. a violent or sexually violent movie), perceive the film as reality rather than fiction, are able to identify with the aggressor (Rule & Ferguson, 1986) and then encounter someone associated in their minds with the victim of violence previously witnessed, are more likely to express violence than individuals without these characteristics. Although immediate exposure to these internal and external conditions are proposed to heighten aggressive responding, long term associations may or may not be conditioned as a result of the availability of experienced "retrieval cues":

> in many instances, mass media exposure produces only short lived effects because its influence stems largely from the temporary activation in audiences' minds of ideas that may intensify the viewers' existing behavioral tendencies. He suggests, however, that "retrieval cues" that may occur in the environment at a later point may reactivate the message presented in the

> media and once again strengthen the potential expression of behavioral inclinations (Malamuth & Ceniti, 1986, p. 135).

Future experiments including assessment immediately following exposure and control over the presence or absence of retrieval cues and control over the opportunity to aggress is required before more conclusive statements concerning the accuracy of these propositions may be determined. Nevertheless, research investigating the immediate effects of viewing violence on attitudes, emotions and cognitions have demonstrated positive relationships (Eron, 1986; Green & Thomas, 1986; Huesmann & Malamuth, 1986; Rule & Ferguson, 1986), and the presence or absence of long term effects are currently receiving empirical investigation by a variety of researchers (for further review, see Berkowitz, 1984; Green & Thomas, 1986; and Huesmann & Malamuth, 1986).

It is important to note that studies investigating arousal to erotic stimuli utilize phallometric testing devices (the measurement of penile tumescence) on a variety of subject samples, ranging from college students to sadistic lust murderers. Underlying the use of these methods is the assumption that sexual offenders will respond more to sexually aggressive stimuli as compared to mutually consenting sexual stimuli, whereas nonoffenders will only respond to consensual depictions. Although support for this assumption exists (Abel et al., 1977; Fedora, 1986; Quinsey et al., 1984), recent studies have found rapists' sexual arousal to coercive stimuli to be less than their arousal to noncoercive sexual stimuli (Lang et al., 1988; Langevin et al., 1988; Nagayama-Hall, 1989).

As a result of this inconsistency, studies investigating both arousal and aggression have evolved. A recent study by Malamuth, Check and Briere (1986) using psychology undergraduates found that for those subjects who reported no or moderate arousal from force, the presence of aggression inhibited sexual arousal. Alternatively, for those reporting relatively high arousal to force, the presence of aggression enhanced sexual arousal. Therefore, force may inhibit or enhance arousal depending upon predispositions to aggression.

A study completed by Hazelwood et al. (1989) investigating 41 incarcerated serial rapists (each had raped 10 or more victims) provided support for this contention. More specifically, their results suggested that the more violent serial rapists were aroused by aggressive acts and increased their amounts of force used upon their victims over time. However, the relatively less violent rapists did not evidence arousal from force and did not increase their aggression over time. A study completed by Lang et al. (1988) investigated the saliency of violence for a variety of sexual and nonsexual violent offenders, and compared the groups with respect to:

> 1) the pattern of coercion and sexual behavior used in their offenses; 2) erotic attraction to children, pubescent and adult females, based on measures of penile tumescence; and 3) their propensity for violence (p. 418).

Their results indicated that some of the heterosexual pedophiles (68%) preferred nonviolent sexual activities such as fondling and mutual masturbation, whereas 32% were more aroused by scenes depicting forced penetration. The incest offenders demonstrated the greatest penile arousal levels to sexual activities with adult females but also demonstrated comparable reactions to mutual consensual sex with children. Although the violent offenders were found to be the most aroused by violent portrayals, the sex offenders of both types exhibited greater arousal to violent scenes than did the community controls. Lang et al. (1988) conclude that various types of sex offenders require delineation with regard to arousal patterns and aggressive inclinations as therapeutic implications may vary as a result of salient motivational factors. That is, men who abuse children as a result of feeling threatened by adult females may require different treatment than those men who abuse children as a result of the arousal they gain by using aggressive force over a helpless individual. Previous research supporting this contention that various types of incestuous (Langevin &

Lang, 1988) and "true" pedophilic men (Langevin, 1983, 1985) exist, appears to be acceptably exhibited by research using plethysmographic methods of investigating arousal and aggression.

In summary, the hypothesis that the viewing of pornographic material is causally related to deviant forms of sexuality (i.e., rape) as a function of increased arousal and aggression against women, currently remains an unresolved issue under empirical investigation. The President's study yielded a barrage of research which has resulted in challenging the conclusions made by the earlier studies. It seems likely that pornography and media violence have an influence on sexual arousal and aggressive inclinations in a number of sexually assaultive and/or violent men; possibly in condoning violent attitudes towards women, legitimizing their fantasies, and in some cases, providing predisposed men, with a violent repertoire of actions to engage. However, not all offenders respond in a universal manner and not all individuals who become aroused by these types of depictions, commit offenses against others. Therefore, the controversy surrounding this issue remains unresolved and it appears that although pornography and media violence may influence similar types of behaviors in their viewing audience, other determinants are interacting and contributing to the actual commission of such an act and requires further investigation. Furthermore, methodological difficulties in this type of research contribute to the inconsistency of results described.

Some methodological problems exist in pornographic research. To begin with, Malamuth (1981) observed that the President's studies were limited in two respects:

> First a distinction was not made between materials that merely depict explicit sexual content and those involving violent and/or coercive-exploitative portrayals of sexual relationships . . . Second, research related to the sexual violence issue was of a correlational nature involving retrospective reporting and seriously limiting the opportunity for establishing causal effects (p. 35).

Several studies supporting the contention that pornography influences the etiology of rape suffers from the same limitations of nonspecificity and correlational rather than causal data. As a result of these limitations, research has evolved into examining the specific conditions under which fantasy and arousal patterns differ by exposure to sexual stimuli, violent stimuli and sexually-violent stimuli. In addition, standardized attitude surveys are under development to differentiate between rapists' attitudes and those held by non-rapists as a means of examining multiple determinants. The research methods also suffered from examining only the very immediate effects and disregarding any long term effects, which current investigations are attempting to provide.

Another problem with pornographic research is that it may be ethically bound, as it may increase rape prone attitudes. However, if in fact pornography does increase the proclivity to rape, not studying these issues may also be unethical (Malamuth, 1981). A major limitation within previous studies has been the utilization of college students in a laboratory, rather than on rapists/other sexual and nonsexual violent offenders themselves (who are a different population to sample) in a variety of settings. Laboratory findings may not generalize outside the experimental setting (Feshback & Malamuth, 1978), nor to other criminal populations, however, they may reflect society's attitudes in general.

Of the studies which have investigated the sexual arousal of various types of criminal offenders, small sample sizes, data acquired from only cooperative volunteers and an inability to account for the etiology of this type of arousal, prevail as methodological limitations (Abel et al., 1977). Unresolved issues relating pornography and media violence to sex crimes has been clearly delineated by Langevin et al. (1988), as follows:

> 1) The number of individuals exposed to erotica (whatever its type) is unknown. The sale of sexually explicit books and movies does not provide sufficient information about the usage and exposure to erotica by sex offenders. 2) The temporal sequence of exposure to erotica (if any) and sexual offense remains, in large part, unknown. The study of gross sociological

> variables does not help answer this question. A study of sex offenders per se might (p. 340).

Therefore, as Langevin et al. (1988) indicate, further research investigating known sex offenders and/or other offenders and their arousal patterns, one's proclivity for violence and actual behavior patterns, appears to be an appropriate area for future investigations.

An assumption generally made in these studies is that fantasies of rape, pedophilia and incest influence future conduct. However, prospective studies to support this assumption do not exist. Thus, investigation of the influence and temporal sequence of fantasy in the development of rape, pedophilia, incest, murder and other deviant acts is required. Multifactorial research examining the relationship between fantasies, personality, environmental influences and developmental traumas may be an appropriate point from which to begin. Results from studies utilizing this approach may yield predictive and preventative measures if the saliency of determinant factors can be identified and addressed in therapeutic efforts.

Finally, some concern over the validity of using plethysmographic procedures have been voiced, as these measures have failed to produce discriminative results or uniform consistency and replication across studies (Blader & Marshall, 1989; Brownell, Hayes & Barlow, 1977; McConaghy, 1989). However, as Blader & Marshall (1989) demonstrate, plethysmographic measures do appear to discriminate pedophiles and other child molesters, and treatments focused upon inhibiting sexual arousal to children or other inappropriate stimuli (Brownell, Hayes & Barlow, 1977) have been demonstrated to be successful, at least in the short term. Furthermore, the presence of structured fantasies (slide or audio presentations) currently used in this research, as compared to the unstructured fantasies (subject's imagination) used in earlier research efforts, appears to be producing more consistent results (Smith & Over, 1987). Nevertheless, this means of assessing arousal in male rapists is less than compelling except for in the cases of very repetitive and dangerous offenders (Blader & Marshall, 1989):

> For the large majority of sexual offenders, who do not evidence such extreme deviant response patterns, there is too much overlap in the distributions of their responses and those of nonrapists for their profiles to have much statistical diagnostic meaning (p. 582).

Thus, Blader and Marshall conclude that plethysmographic assessments yield little usefulness in determining dangerousness, prognosis or treatment needs of the offenders. However, reliance upon unifactorial, unimethod designs and the absence of multifactorial assessment and determination has contributed to the limitations demonstrated within this type of research. It is this author's belief that future research efforts would demonstrate significant gains in prediction, prognosis and treatment if multiple factor determinants, such as personality, fantasies, attitudes, developmental traumas, alcohol, pornography and so on are assessed in conjunction with plethysmographic measurements. Current Research investigating the contributory influences of alcohol and internal and external determinants of sexually and/or physically aggressive acts is presented in the following paragraphs as a means to exemplify the utility of aggregate research methods and enhance our understanding of contributory factors to criminal acts. Although the following paragraphs focus more upon relations to generally violent, rather than specifically sexually violent acts, alcoholism and various factors and their interrelations are often implicated in both violent and sexually violent offences. As current research trends more frequently employ interactive measures, presentation of this information was employed to delineate the utility of aggregate research, as well as enhance understanding of sexual offences and general criminal behaviors.

Integrative Approaches

Researchers attempting an integrative approach have investigated the relationship between alcoholism and various internal and external determinants in the influence of criminality (Crowe & George, 1989; George & Marlatt, 1986; Hillbrand, Foster & Hirt, 1988; Holcomb & Adams, 1985; Kellert & Felthaus, 1985; Kozma & Zuckerman, 1982; Lang & Sibrel, 1989). The association between alcohol intoxication to violent crimes in general, homicidal acts and sexual assaults is well recognized (Holcomb & Adams, 1985; Lindquist, 1986). It has also been found that individuals with a previous criminal history are more likely to have difficulties with substance abuse than individuals with no prior arrests (Lindquist, 1986). Remaining controversial is whether or not individuals with a personality disorder exhibit higher inclinations to abuse alcohol or whether alcohol abuse leads to personality disintegration or if both constitute part of the criminal makeup and may be encumbered under a single conceptual disease.

One theory describing the influence of alcohol on criminal behavior asserts that individuals who evidence "overcontrolled" personalities, which generally allows inhibition of their aggressive impulses, when intoxicated, lose the inhibition required to maintain nonaggressive impulses. Thus, while drunk, the individual becomes disinhibited and acts out his pent up aggression in a single violently explosive act (Kozma & Zuckerman, 1983). Therefore, crimes of rape, assault and/or murder result from the released aggression, which has been festering within the individual for a long period of time and which following a release of self-control through intoxication and the presence of an appropriate victim or perceived external threat are expressed.

Another explanation of the influence of alcohol was suggested by Kellert and Felthaus (1985) in their study of factors related to cruelty to animals and later criminality. More specifically, these authors reveal that individuals who experienced domestic violence in childhood and had alcoholic parents, were more likely to commit acts of animal cruelty in childhood, become substance abusers as adults and be intoxicated during commission of their crimes (mostly homicide) than individuals without similar experiences who were found to commit less aggressive crimes (such as theft) and less likely to be intoxicated at the time of the offense. Despite this finding, research contesting the relationship between use of alcohol and level of violence committed in a criminal act was not found to be related in a study of 500 violent and nonviolent psychopaths (Hare & McPherson, 1984). Rather, these authors found psychopathy rather than alcohol consumption and other factors to be more influential in the use of violence during the commission of a crime in individuals prior to the age of 35 years old.

In a review of current literature investigating the relationship between alcohol to aggression and crime, Lang &

Sibrel (1989) suggest that the inconsistent results are a function of methodological limitations including variable focus and subjects sampled within past research investigations. To begin with, historical studies focused upon single, discrete causes of aggressive acts rather than upon the more widespread and current acceptance that any act is multiply determined. Today's studies appear to increasingly recognize that the complexity of human behavior may be determined by "person multiplied by situation" interactions, which are defined by Lang & Sibrel (1989) as follows:

> The person construct here can include genetic, physical condition, learning history, personality, and other individual-differences characteristics. The situation construct refers to both proximal and distal aspects of the physical, social, and cultural contexts in which behavior occurs (pp. 300-301).

Thus, the application of alcohol intermixed with the interaction between person and situation adds complexity to the determination of human behavior, unless it has overwhelming impact above and beyond these influences. This is rarely the case, as the individual would have to be in a drunken stupor while committing the crime, which is the rare rather than normative finding. Thus, variability between influence is likely to result, hampering the generalizability of any determined results. For example, the "disinhibition" theory of alcohol's influence on behavior has not been universally demonstrated and often varies as a function of level of intoxication, the person and the situation that person is in (Lang & Sibrel, 1989). Therefore, these authors abandon the compilation of general conclusions and focus upon determining "for whom and under what circumstances will what quantity and kind of drinking alter the nature and probability of which social behavior" (p. 302).

In their review of what is accepted and regarded as known about the associations between alcohol and criminal behavior, conclusions including the following were described:

1. the longitudinal relationship between alcohol consumption and crime demonstrates only a weak positive correlation;
2. reduction in societal alcohol consumption rates is reflected by similar reductions in societal crime rates;
3. expectancy studies which investigate the general population's beliefs regarding an issue, demonstrate an inconsistent but most commonly regarded belief by lay persons that alcohol is a primary precipitant in the increase of interpersonal aggression; but these expectancies varied as a function of the respondent's personal drinking history;

4. men, more frequently than women expect aggression to be related to alcohol;
5. spouse abuse is often attributed and excused as an alcohol problem;
6. although alcohol is involved in many crimes, it is an important contributor in relatively few;
7. experimental studies using balanced placebo designs (i.e. expectancy X alcohol/no alcohol condition X aggression) demonstrate a positive correlation between expectancy to aggress, alcohol consumption and demonstrated aggressiveness;
8. the greater the alcohol expectancy perception, the greater the display and level of aggression;
9. that people perceive alcohol to precipitate aggression in others, but not in themselves; and
10. that alcohol serves to elicit aggression in individuals who have a proclivity to be violent and find themselves in "aggressible" situations.

From this plethora of investigatible conclusions, Lang & Sibrel (1989) conclude that individual differences demonstrated in the relationship between alcohol and criminality may be explained by an individual's personal aggressive proclivities and various physiological (biological mechanisms such as epilepsy and testosterone levels) and psychological (cognitive expectancies and personal traits including impulsiveness, nonconformance, frustration, tolerance, and so on) responses to alcohol, within any given situation that fosters or is amenable to the expression of a criminal act.

Overall, Lang and Sibrel's comprehensive overview of the literature convincingly demonstrates that alcohol is rarely a sole direct cause of human aggression or criminality. Violent and/or sexually violent crime may or may not occur with the aid of alcohol consumption and many individuals who consume alcohol may never commit a violent crime. Nevertheless, its presence in a number of criminal acts does suggest that it remains a contributor at various levels for various individuals in a variety of situational contexts. Therefore, future research investigating the relationship between alcohol consumption, person and situational determinants, should prove to be revealing. Studies investigating these factors and adding in variables such as anger, erotic arousal, cognitive expectancies of sexuality and so on may help delineate further knowledge on the influence of alcohol on various types of criminal acts and whether the choice of a particular crime is influenced by personal dispositions, situational contexts and the relative presence or absence of alcohol.

Other investigations using integrative methodology to delineate variables associated with criminality have included prediction studies of violence, which attempt to assess an individual's propensity for committing a future violent act. Studies investigating the prediction of violence have identified a number of variables believed associated with one's criminal or "dangerous" inclinations, in addition to their prior criminal history. Identified variables include: (1) history of eneuresis, fire setting and cruelty to animals (Hellman & Blackman, 1966; MacDonald, 1963); (2) personality characteristics, psychiatric status and history, neurological status and history, socialization, and biographical variables (Hillbrand, Foster & Hirt, 1988); (3) undercontrolled versus overcontrolled personality types (Megargee, 1966); (4) the diagnosis of paranoid schizophrenia (Nettler, 1982); (5) temporal lobe epilepsy, childhood aggressiveness, parental brutality, and pathological jealousy (MacDonald, 1963); (6) individuals who are introspective, socially withdrawn, low self-esteem, narcissistic, hypochondriacal, "dreamer", emotionally flat, without remorse, sexually weak, physically under-endowed, unmarried, no prior criminal history, no mental illness, not grossly psychotic, poor work record, inordinate interest in weapons, punitive father and overprotective mother (Brittain, 1970); (7) high levels of testosterone, loss of inhibition due to social sanctioning of aggressive and sexually aggressive acts and exposure to pornography

(Feshbach and Malamuth, 1978); and (8) presence of damaging childhood experiences, schooling consisting of authority and capital punishment and the development of poor self-esteem and consistent fears of failure (Schultz, 1985) to mention a few. Despite providing a beginning point to the aggregation factor research method, few studies have estimated the relative contribution of each of these factors, outside of identifying their empirically observed presence.

An effort to identify the relative contribution of a variety of factors and their association to violent individuals was attempted by Hillbrand et al.'s (1988) study of 85 male forensic patients in the United States who were identified as violent or nonviolent. The results of their study supported previous research findings that alcohol consumption and race (in that nonwhites were overrepresented) is related to violence, whereas it failed to provide support for previous research implicating the presence of brain impairment as a strong and relatively prevalent indicator in violent individuals. Rather, their study demonstrated that violent individuals were less likely to be brain damaged (in the temporal lobe), which raises the question of the importance of commonly temporal lobe epilepsy in the expression of violent behaviors. Factors of depression, including low self-esteem and chronic feelings of inadequacy were found to be correlated, but more research was found to be needed to explain the direction and influence of this type of dysphoria on aggressive expressions. A surprising finding by Hillbrand et al. was that violent individuals as compared to nonviolent ones, exhibited a tendency to typically adopt an avoidant style of responding in threatening situations. They explain this result as a possible function of an aggressive individuals' attempts to overcontrol their hostility:

> Fearing their hostility, violent individuals may strive to inhibit this hostility drastically in fear-arousing situations (Hillbrand et al., 1988, p. 379).

These authors concluded from their stepwise multiple regression analysis, which identifies the best linear combination of variables predictive of group membership, that psychological variables had greater power than psychiatric, social historical and neurological variables in discriminating group membership to violent or nonviolent groups. Therefore, stable attributes often measured by psychological inventories were shown to be stronger predictors of violence than were variables associated within the other spheres of investigation. Although predicting dangerousness is not equivocal to understanding and describing etiology of aggression and the criminal, it is important to note that these studies have almost universally concluded that the individual's type of offense and prior record (of violence) are the best predictors (Jackson, 1989). Despite this reigning attitude, studies investigating the relative relationships between prior criminal history and various person and situational variables are beginning to emerge and should prove to be revealing (Henderson, 1984).

In summary, it appears that current research directions point towards acceptance of an interactional perspective in explaining the dynamics of aggressive behavior in humans. Specific research investigating how the internal state of the individual influences his or her perception of stimuli in aggressive-provoking situations and how this stimuli influences their internal state, may be revealing individual differences research in delineating etiological factors in aggression. Individual differences across contributory factors and with specific focus upon sexually aggressive versus physically aggressive types is required and may enhance understanding of both consistent and definitive contributors.

Chapter Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a comprehensive review of the literature currently available concerning rape, other sexual offences, aggression and the fantasies prevalent in crime. In order to accomplish this, knowledge regarding underlying motives, theoretical approaches, functions of an offender's fantasies, pornographic influences and interactive models of aggression were reviewed. Relatively few empirical studies have investigated the sexual fantasies of sex offenders (Blader & Marshall, 1989; Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981), the nature and content of an individual's sexual fantasies remain an area of dispute (Gallant & Wormith, 1986); and, little research concerning the relationship between personality characteristics, life experiences, criminal offence(s) and sexual fantasies currently exists. Finally, of the research investigating the importance of one's thoughts in relation to one's actions, sexual fantasies appear to bear a strong, if undefined, relationship to the commission of a sexual crime (Beneke, 1982; Crepault & Coutie, 1980; Friday, 1980; Groth, 1979; Levine & Koenig, 1980; MacCulloch, Snowden & Mills, 1983; MacDonald, 1979; Sussman & Bordwell, 1981), justifying further investigation of the nature of this relationship.

It is evident from this review of the literature that knowledge surrounding the development, personality, environmental influences and temporal sequence and function of fantasies is relevant to acquiring knowledge and understanding of various types of criminal offenders, in particular to various types of sex offenders. This study will attempt to increase this knowledge by investigating:

(1) the background histories of various types of offenders and nonoffenders; (2) the types of sexual fantasies they report to have; (3) personality characteristics as exhibited by Jackson's (1971) Personality Research Form, and; (4) the relationship, if any, between personality traits and reported sexual fantasies. Although the choice of study presented in this research project fails to adequately meet all of the limitations presented throughout this literature review, it was deemed to be an appropriate first step in attempting empirical multifactorial research to enhance the knowledge of this author's understanding of the dynamics underlying various types of criminal inclinations, with specific focus upon sex offenders, a specific population for whom appropriate treatment measures may be developed as a result of this research. Justification for this research rests in the paucity of information and/or inconsistent findings currently available regarding sexual offenders, their development, personality traits and influence of fantasies and the interrelations among these factors upon the commission(s) of their crimes.

I. CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

In order to increase our knowledge and understanding of sexual fantasies and personality characteristics reportedly held by sexual offenders, other criminal offenders and nonoffenders, an empirical assessment of these variables were undertaken during the spring and summer of 1988.

A.3.1 Subjects

The subjects participating in this study included 178 adult males ranging between 19 and 60 years in age (mean age for entire sample = 30.62). Thirty nonoffending males (individuals never convicted of any criminal offence) were chosen from a variety of men currently residing in or around the city of Edmonton, Alberta. To be included in this group, one only had to be of the male gender, above 18 years of age, without a criminal conviction and willing to voluntarily participate in an educational research project.

A second group of subjects were obtained from Bowden Correctional Institute, which is a federal penitentiary holding approximately 450 inmates who are serving sentences greater than two years and classified as medium to maximum security risks. The criteria for inclusion in this group, consisted of: (a) male above 18 years of age; (b) conviction of a relevant criminal offence as defined by the Criminal Code of Canada; and, (c) willingness to voluntarily participate in an educational research project.

In order to acquire a sample of incarcerated offenders, a number of preliminary steps were required to first gain entrance into a correctional institution and, second, to ensure protection and confidentiality for the participating inmates. The first step required to implement this research involved gaining approval from the University of Alberta's research and ethics committee, which was completed in November of 1987. Research proposals were then sent to a variety of federal and provincial institutions involved in the custody and maintenance of criminal offenders. Although the Provincial institutions rejected this study,[3] the Correctional Service of Canada Research and Ethics Committee for the Prairie Regions of Canada approved the proposal and granted permission to conduct this study in any prairie region federal penitentiary; following permission being granted by each local warden. The warden of Bowden Correctional Institute (a federal penetentiary) located in Red Deer, Alberta, granted permission for this research to be conducted upon their premises with voluntary participation by each inmate, being a rigid requirement.

In order to obtain a sample of voluntary inmate participants, an informed written consent form (see Appendix

I) was distributed to each "living unit" of the penitentiary and inmates were requested to submit their names for participation. As a means to elicit participation randomly chosen inmates from the general population list were asked to report to the psychology department at which time they were informed of the purpose of this study and invited to participate.

From these procedures, 260 inmates were invited to participate during the four month time period allocated for this data collection.[4] Of the 260 inmates invited to participate, 150 individuals agreed to participate, whereas 110 individuals declined. This population of 150 inmates included 30 men who had been convicted of a sexual assault against an adult, 24 men who had been convicted of a sexual assault against a minor (i.e. under 18 years of age), 29 men who had been convicted of either first-degree or second-degree murder or manslaughter, and 65 men who had been convicted of various physical assaults against either man or property. As there existed a relatively smaller number of incarcerated sex offenders and murderers (i.e. sex offenders constituted approximately 30 percent of the general inmate population and murderers approximately 20 percent), "other" criminal offenders were included for purposes of comparison.

The 110 inmates who declined to participate offered a variety of reasons for their choice including: (1) lack of interest in assisting educational research; (2) fear of being identified as a sex offender, whether or not they had committed such an offence; (3) a general adversity to associating themselves with anyone related to the field of psychology; (4) unwillingness to reveal personal and intimate information required by the nature of this research, and most commonly stated; (5) a lack of trust in authority figures in general, and distrust that any personal information they supplied would remain confidential, despite my reassurances to the contrary.

A further difficulty in sampling procedures was the fact that one's conviction often failed to accurately reflect the crime, which was in fact, committed. For instance, an individual may be charged with murder, when in fact, the crime consisted of an aggravated sexual assault resulting in death. Hence, this individual may receive a conviction of aggravated assault causing death or a murder conviction, without the sexual assault being present within their files. Attempts to overcome this difficulty rested upon tabulating their self-reported crime with the offence listed in the general population list as a measure of accuracy. However, it is speculated that failure to admit to a crime other than the convicted crime, likely did not occur as such an admission could potentially yield dire judicial consequences should such information reach the hands of the proper authorities. Nevertheless, inconsistencies between the offenders' self-reports and the official population list were not found and classification of the inmates into a sex offender, murderer of "other" offender category was completed.

Voluntary participation was the key criterion for inclusion of all subjects. This was obtained through explanation of the purposes of this research: (1) as an investigation to promote knowledge surrounding personality types and sexual fantasies commonly experienced by various groups of men; and, (2) as a means to develop a clinically valuable tool for assessment of an individual's sexual fantasies.

Protection of the individual's identity, unless otherwise indicated,[5] was ensured for both samples of offenders and nonoffenders. Each interview was conducted blind as to the identity and/or crime of the individual participant, and absence of name usage on any of the implemented measurement tools served to guarantee anonymity. Each inmate was required to complete a "Permission to Release Information" form (see Appendix II), which asked each individual whether they wished to remain anonymous or reveal their identity for the purpose of obtaining their results from the test battery. Only in cases where this form was appropriately completed, could access to the individuals' responses be obtained by appropriate authorities (i.e. psychologists) within the institution.

Following explanation of the purpose of this study, each of the 150 inmates who chose to participate, received from the receptionist of the institute's psychology department, a battery of numbered questionnaires to complete. Upon receiving their questionnaires, the receptionist recorded the identification number of the surveys and the individual's official recorded offence, as a means to delineate the type of offender participating. Following completion of data collection, this list was cross-checked with each inmate's self-reported offence, resulting in the sample of offenders described. Once this cross-tabulation was completed, the list was destroyed and the offender's anonymity remained intact.

Thirty out of thirty-three nonoffenders agreed to participate in this study. The three individuals who refused to participate declined on the premise that the assessment was too personal and offensive to partake in. Similar procedures were used to protect the identity of the participating nonoffenders, including absence of name usage, voluntary participation and provision of informed written consent. The nonoffenders were similarly invited to indicate on a consent form whether they would desire further information pertaining to their specific results. Without indication for further debriefing, absolute anonymity and confidentiality of each participant's results were successfully achieved.

It is important to mention the limitations concerning the comparative groups chosen for this study. To begin with, approximately 30 percent of the nonoffenders were individuals located on or near the grounds of the University of Alberta, yielding a moderately high proportion of students. Approximately 20 percent of the sample included individuals with professional or technical careers and the remaining individuals were employed in various blue collar jobs. Generalizations to other individuals not similar in characteristics described more fully in the results section of this study, may not be accurately made.

Procedure

For the 150 offenders, no greater than five randomly chosen inmates, at a time and irrespective of their crimes, were led into a designated "research" room located within the administration building of the correctional facility. Following further explanation by this examiner of this study's purpose, the inmates were invited to read the consent form and voice any relevant concerns or questions. Upon completion of the initial briefing, each individual was given the opportunity to volunteer or withdraw from further participation. If the individual chose to participate, he received the measurement instruments from the psychology receptionist down the hall, who recorded the number of the battery of surveys he received and the offence category that was listed with his name in the general population list. Once each of the five inmates had either withdrawn or chose to continue participating, they returned to the testing room to receive the final instructions for completing the questionnaires. Instructions for each measurement instrument was provided in a standardized manner and individual completion of the questionnaires followed. At this time, it was further emphasized that each individual had the right to withdraw his participation at any time during the assessment, should he decide to rescind his initial decision to cooperate. In the event that an individual inmate made this choice, his partially completed battery was destroyed within his presence and his survey identification number and offence were struck from the receptionist's list of participants. Throughout the four-month period required to complete administration of the research, five inmates terminated their participation in this manner.

The remaining inmates who completed all of the self-administered surveys did so at separated desks within the test area, which allowed individual privacy in providing responses to the questionnaires. Upon completion of the surveys, each inmate placed his questionnaires in a covered box, which remained sealed until the data collection was complete. This procedure further enhanced confidentiality of their responses from this examiner, as recall of an individual's face with his identification number, if observed throughout test administration, was diminished by random placement of each battery within the container. Once the inmate had returned his completed surveys, he was invited to make any comments or ask further questions relevant to his experience. Finally, he was thanked for his cooperation and asked to return to his interrupted daily activities.

Administration of the questionnaires to the group of nonoffenders, was similar to the offenders in nature, but differed in process. Rather than conducting the research in groups of five, each person was initially introduced to the purpose of the research, required to review and sign the informed written consent form and received the battery of questionnaires on an individual basis. As compared to the offenders who were required to complete their surveys in a group, the nonoffenders completed their questionnaires in solitude. Thus, it is possible that comparisons between the offenders who received group administration versus individual administration of the nonoffenders was contaminated by failure to provide standardized methodology. Nevertheless, privacy for the offenders was maximized through the use of tables with dividers blocking sight between offenders and complaints regarding lack of privacy were not expressed when queried. In light of the offenders reported satisfaction with the group administration process, it is believed not to have influenced their responses in a significant manner. Nevertheless, future research comparing group versus individual administration of these tests may be required to empirically establish certainty in this area.

Individuals from both groups were required to complete the surveys in a specific order, beginning with the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire exhibited in Appendix III, followed by the Background Information Questionnaire[6] exhibited in Appendix IV, the Sexual Fantasy Checklist[7] and finally the Personality Research Form--Form E.[8] Upon completion of these questionnaires, subjects were encouraged to ask questions or make comments regarding their experience to the study. Further debriefing regarding the utility of the questionnaires was implemented as a means to dissipate any arousal, which may have occurred as a result of participating in this study. Finally, information obtained from all 178 subjects were included in the present study to complete the data analysis and interpretation of the obtained results.

Research Instruments

Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire

The first measurement instrument administered to all subjects, was Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire (SFQ), which was incorporated to obtain information describing the content and frequency of each individual's sexual fantasies and as a means to investigate construct validity of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist created by this author. This questionnaire uses less offensive terms (i.e. mutual sexual intercourse as compared to "fucking her") than the Sexual Fantasy Checklist and was placed first in the battery as a means to reduce the offensiveness, which may have been felt by each participant. Furthermore, Wilson's SFQ has previously been used in offender research (Gallant & Wormith, 1986), which enables replicative and comparative investigation of results across studies.

Gallant and Wormith (1986) utilized the SFQ to assess the sexual fantasies reported by a sample of sex offenders and found, overall, that sexual offenders did not typically report deviant fantasies outside of the "normal" range:

> Inmates reported high scores on the intimacy factor, moderate scores on both the exploratory and impersonal factors, and extremely low scores on the sadomasochistic factor. (Gallant & Wormith, 1986, p. 69)

Despite these results, Gallant and Wormith reported that 23 percent of the rapists, 24 percent of the pedophiles and 26 percent of the controls they sampled, stated having fantasized about the offence for which they had been convicted prior to its actual commission and that among these subjects:

> . . . both sexual offender samples were more likely than non-sexual offenders to have masturbated to the offense fantasy prior to the actual deviant behavior (i.e., 80% of the rapist, 100% of the pedophiles, and only 20% of the controls; $x^2(2) = 7.80$, $p = .02$), and had masturbated more often to the particular fantasy $(x^2(6)) = 11.-$, $p = .09$). (Gallant & Wormith, 1986, p. 80)

Thus, inclusion of this instrument within the present study was deemed to be appropriate for obtaining both construct validity estimates and increased knowledge regarding the nature and function of the participant's sexual fantasies.

The Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire is a self-administered questionnaire, which includes a list of forty items delineating erotic fantasies ranging from commonly accepted or "nondeviant" behaviour (e.g. kissing passionately) to unacceptable or "deviant" behavior (e.g. hurting a partner). Respondents were required to indicate how frequently they thought about each item on a six-point scale (Never = 0, Seldom = 1, Occasionally = 2, Sometimes = 3, Often = 4, Regularly = 5) during three activities, including: daytime fantasies, fantasies during intercourse or masturbation, and dreams while asleep. They were also asked to indicate how frequently they had performed each act in reality and how frequently they would like to engage in each act in the future.

Individuals' responses to each item were grouped into four content scales or Fantasy Factors as initially described by Wilson (1978). Each of the four Fantasy Factors were composed of ten items, as displayed in Table 1:

Table 1

Items Describing Fantasy Factors of the SFQ

Fantasy Factor	Items Scored
Exploratory	5, 6, 9, 22, 26, 29, 32, 33, 34, 36
Intimate	1, 2, 3, 10, 11, 16, 17, 18, 38, 40
Impersonal	4, 12, 13, 19, 23, 30, 31, 35, 37, 39
Sadomasochistic	7, 8, 14, 15, 20, 21, 24, 25, 27, 28

Frequency scores for each of the Fantasy Factors were calculated on each individual's responses on the basis of content and frequency of fantasies. This was calculated by combining the fantasy ratings over the 40 items in each of the five conditions and totalling the scores for each item. These item scores were then grouped into factor totals and the group means were computed to obtain between group comparisons. A second analysis involved computing five subscores to reflect the amount of fantasizing, irrespective of content, in the five different conditions: daytime fantasies, fantasies during intercourse or masturbation, dreams while asleep, have done in reality, and would like to do in reality. The SFQ was also used as a means to investigate whether a relationship reflecting construct validity for the Sexual Fantasy Checklist, as measured by correlational procedures, could be established.

The Background Information Questionnaire

Each individual next completed the Background Information Questionnaire (listed in Appendix IV), which was developed to obtain descriptive information regarding the life histories of the individuals sampled in this study. This questionnaire was used in the Masters research conducted in 1986 by this examiner. Results from the 1986 study suggested that: a history of childhood emotional, physical and/or sexual abuse, and an obsessive preoccupation with one's own fantasies, which may or may not have been enhanced by the use of pornography, were implicated as contributory, but not causal factors in the development of an individual who exhibits a propensity to commit a sexual assault. However, these findings were neither comprehensive nor conclusive and further research investigating a variety of etiological factors for various types of criminal offenders were found to be warranted. Furthermore, several researchers have claimed that individuals prone to commit various types of criminal offences have experienced characteristic life histories, which differ from individuals who are not so inclined (Groth, 1979; Lang & Sebril, 1989; Levine & Koening, 1980; Scott, 1982; Shorkey, 1978; Walters et al., 1988). Thus, further empirical investigation of potentially related experiential factors is clearly justified, and necessary to increase our understanding of individuals inclined to commit various types of criminal offences.

In order to further investigate whether background factors differ between various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders, information regarding: prior criminal histories, rates of alcohol consumption, history of physical abuse, history of childhood sexual victimization and use of pornography, were assessed. Use of group frequency means and further, between group differences analyses, were employed.

The Sexual Fantasy Checklist

The third instrument used in this study was the Sexual Fantasy Checklist (SFC), which was originally developed and used to investigate the types of sexual fantasies reportedly held by sex offenders and nonoffenders for this author's Masters thesis, in 1986. Development of the items contained within the Checklist evolved through: 1) the author's imagination; 2) description of sexual fantasies provided by several male friends; and, 3) perusal of hard core pornographic magazines. Face validity was achieved from positive feedback from nonoffending and offending individuals, as well as ethics committee approval from the Educational Psychology Department and Alberta Hospitals' research administrators.

The Checklist was divided into 12 subsections allowing for profile analysis differentiating between groups of individuals to be conducted. Subjective classification of the 12 sections were based upon pooling items which appeared to be related to particular domains, as judged by this author. These sections were subjectively given names and descriptions believed reflective of the items contained within each section were created. As such, the chosen titles are merely descriptive and have not been empirically tested. The titles and descriptions are presented in the following table.

Table 2

Table and Description of the Sections of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist

Section Title		Description
I)	Power and Domination	Items descriptive of power and control over another; superiority authority and commandment over others.
II)	Bondage	Items descriptive of rendering another person or self into a physically helpless position.
III)	Seduction and Courtship	Items descriptive of actions taken to induce the recipient's love or affection for the respective suitor.
IV)	Sexual Aggression	Items descriptive of overpowering sexual activities aimed at self-satisfaction rather than mutual satisfaction. Elements of power, anger, exploitation and humiliation may be involved.
V)	Anger and Hatred	Items descriptive of the individual's contempt and disliking for another. Some elements of verbal or physical violence may be involved.
VI)	Sadism	Items which are bizarre, violent and cruel, with the underlying intent to torture, maim, destroy, or murder the victim.
VII)	Masochism	Items which are derogatory, humiliating, or harmful to the individual where they are voluntary participants.

VIII)	Love, Friendship and Intimacy	Items descriptive of respect, trust, sharing, caring and desire to spend their life with a special person.
IX)	Spiritual Worship	Items descriptive of obsessive preoccupation with the pure, virginal female in need of protection and worship.
X)	Submission and Dependence	Items descriptive of the individual's desires to have someone take responsibility for their health, actions and security.
XI)	Rejection and Insecurity	Items descriptive of the individual's fear of being alone and not loved or liked by others.
XII)	Mutual Sexual Activities	Items descriptive of sexual activities that are mutually engaged in, which are not harmful, destructive or exploitative of either partner; rather, they tend towards mutual pleasure and satisfaction.

Statistical procedures employed to test the 1986 Masters research questions and the utility of the checklist included various MANOVA procedures, a principle components factor analysis, multivariate profile analysis and overall item analysis. Results from the various tests indicated that: 1) sex offenders differed from nonoffenders in their reported sexual fantasies at the .05 level of significance (F-ratio = 2.298, p = .02); 2) the nature of these differences, as delineated by the subsections of the Checklist, could not be determined likely due to limitations in sample size (sex offenders' N = 21), nonoffenders' N =

50), and, 3) the sample of rapists differed from the nonoffenders on a construct reflective of sexual aggression (F - ratio = 3.30, p = .00462). Factor analysis revealed the presence of three factors (subjectively termed: sexual aggression, mutual sexual gratification, and rejection and insecurity), which were found to account for 80.29 percent of the total variance (Furman, 1986).

Further results from the Multivariate Profile Analysis conducted in 1986 upon the three groups (i.e., rapists, sex offenders, and non offenders) was not found to be significant, however, statistical significance was obtained between the collapsed group of sex criminals (i.e., the rapists combined with other sex offenders) and nonoffenders (f - ratio = 2.30, p = .018). The inconsistency in these results was attributed to the small number of rapists (N = 5) utilized in the study. It was concluded that more consistent results may have been obtained if a greater number of offending individuals had been included in the research sample.

Results from the (1986) item analysis indicated that the Checklist demonstrated high internal consistency for the total test (Cronbach's alpha for the composite = .85, Hoyt estimate of reliability = .98) and the results presented in Table 3 demonstrate high internal reliability of items within each section of the Checklist.

Table 3

Estimates of internal reliability

Section	Hoyt Coefficient	Standard Error
1	.80	1.71
2	.84	.85
3	.91	1.50
4	.96	2.05
5	.92	.07
6	.96	1.33
7	.81	.70
8	.95	1.21
9	.84	.82
10	.87	1.10
11	.88	1.40
12	.96	2.07

These results indicated the items to be homogeneous (i.e. measuring the same things) throughout each section of the Checklist, as well as over its entirety.

The overall results obtained from the 1986 study demonstrated that further refinement and utilization of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist as a measurement instrument designed to delineate one's sexual fantasies was justified. Revision of the 1986 Checklist involved disposing of items with subtest correlations equalling less than .40 and omitting intercorrelated items within subsections of the Checklist.

Each subsection of the Checklist was reduced to 15 items and the original data from these items was subjected to an item analysis and principle components factor analysis. Reduction of the Checklist did not significantly alter the internal reliability (Cronbach's Alpha for Composite = .86) and factor structure of the test. Thus, the revised version of the Checklist was deemed to be appropriate for the purposes of the present study.

In order to obtain more information of the frequency of reported sexual fantasies, a likert scale ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = Every hour, was attached to each item in the Checklist. To guard against the identification of socially desirable sections of the Checklist, randomly chosen items have been alternately combined (i.e., item 1 of Section I, II, III . . . XII, was followed by item 2 of Section I, II, II . . . XII and so on) and presented as a single list. Items not included in the revised version, are the likert scaled questions regarding the individual's expressions of aversion and arousal to each subsection of the Checklist. These questions were found to be redundant by the subjects who completed the original Checklist and will thus be included only at the end of the test in reference to the entire instrument. Finally, additional questions have been included to provide further information deemed pertinent to the purposes of this study. In summary, further research utilizing the Revised Sexual Fantasy Checklist on larger samples of incarcerated offenders was found to be justified. The statistical methods used for data analyses upon the Revised Sexual Fantasy Checklist will be fully described in Chapter Four.

The Personality Research Form--Form E

The final questionnaire used in this study was the Personality Research Form--Form E (PRF--Form E) developed by Douglas N. Jackson, between 1965 and 1967. The major purpose of the PRF--Form E is the assessment of "normal" functioning or personality traits relative to a wide variety of areas of human functioning (i.e. achievement, endurance, dominance, interpersonal relations, and so on), and is less concerned with psychopathology. Previous research investigating the psychopathology of criminal offenders has yielded inconsistent results (Amir, 1971; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Longo, 1982; Scott, 1982); however, an overwhelming majority of studies indicate only a small percentage of offenders to be psychologically disordered (Dreiblatt, 1982; Erickson et al., 1987; MacCulloch et al., 1983). These findings suggest that research of offenders may prove to be more revealing if a focus upon primary personality characteristics rather than psychopathology is carried out and justifies the use of a research instrument such as the PRF--Form E, which was developed expressly for this purpose.

The Personality Research Form--Form E is a 352 true-false item test consisting of 22 scales, which were initially developed by Douglas N. Jackson in 1967. These scales were formulated from Henry A. Murray's (1938) Need System Theory, which asserts that individuals behave in a manner consistent with specific needs or motivational forces that the individual perceives as congruent with his self-perception (Murray, 1938). Thus, the PRF--Form E was developed to measure some form of response style or "trait", which is relatively enduring over time and generalizes to some degree beyond the immediate test situation (Jackson in Wolman, 1974). As the PRF--Form E further measures aspects of interpersonal relationships, investigation of the possible relationship between one's sexual fantasies and personality characteristics appeared appropriate. Finally, the choice of this test over other personality measures is based upon: 1) its rigorous attention to format, reliability, generalizability and validity (Jackson, 1984; Lei & Skinner, 1982); 2) its widespread recognition as an excellent research instrument (Anastasi, 1982); 3) through recommendations by local experts in forensic psychology (Dr. Pat Thauberger, Dr. John Reddon) as to its applicability for the research purposes within this study; and, 4) previous use on less educated and various types of populations (Bentler & Prince, 1969; Lei & Skinner, 1982; Skiller & Jackson, 1977). Various statistical analyses investigating whether group differences existed and if so, where these differences could be found, as delineated by the 22 subscales, were employed. Further correlational procedures were employed to investigate the relationship between personality traits and sexual fantasies.

It is important to note that all of the measurement instruments used in this study were dependent upon the individual's integrity to self-report in an honest and accurate manner. The problem of obtaining accurate and honest responses that are not influenced by possible losses in memory, guilt, embarrassment or the desire to please, is a well documented methodological problem (Kozma & Zuckerman, 1983; Reddon, Holden & Jackson, 1983). This appears to be especially true in studies investigating traditionally taboo topics such as one's sexual fantasies (Gallant & Wormith, 1986; Nagayama Hall, G.C., 1989). In an attempt to address this difficulty, establishment of rapport, ensurement of complete anonymity and confidentiality was provided and special cooperation was requested. Furthermore, review of each respondent's Desirability Scale included in the PRF--Form E, which investigates response bias, was completed. It was hypothesized by this author that participants would exhibit consistent response styles across the measurement instruments and that "faking good" on the PRF--Form E may suggest that such a response style existed on the remaining three instruments. Although this method to examine response bias is tenuous, more rigorous procedures were not included for the purposes of this research and incorporating "desirability" scales for the SFC remains a future research endeavor. Thus, the use of self-report measures remains a methodological difficulty, however, reliance upon such procedures remains necessary until objective and empirical assessment devices which can somehow monitor one's thoughts, are successfully developed. Despite this limitation, justification for inclusion of self-report instruments rests upon the need to acquire clearer conceptions of how individuals describe, or are willing to describe, intimate information regarding their personal lives and perceived personality characteristics.

Statistical Analysis

Various statistical analyses were employed on the total sample to provide empirical data on the various measures. Overall means and group frequency rates were calculated to provide descriptive information; between group analyses on the various measures were used when appropriate; and correlational procedures investigating the relationship across measurement devices was completed. As a great number and variety of analyses were conducted upon the data collected for this study, more specific delineation of the statistical tests employed for each measurement instrument will be included in the following chapter.

It is important to note, however, that the completed statistical analyses were conducted upon various group configurations, which constituted the sample of subjects used in this study. Depending upon the statistical test employed and the size of the group sampled, comparisons included breaking the sample into either a five group, four group, or two group condition. The first set of statistical analyses was dictated by the five group condition, which involved assessment of the differences exhibited on the measurement instruments between the: 1) sex offenders--adult; 2) sex offenders--minor; 3) murderers; 4) "other" offenders; and, 5) nonoffenders. Due both to the limitations in sample size and specific interest in comparing sex offenders to other criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders, statistical tests were further completed upon the four group condition. This condition involved collapsing the two sex offender groups (i.e. sex offender--adult and sex offender--minor) into a single group of sex offenders and comparing their responses on the various measures against the remaining three groups (i.e., murderers, "other" offenders and nonoffenders). The final two group condition involved collapsing the entire sample of criminal offenders (i.e. sex offender--adult, sex offender--minor, murderers, and other offenders) into a single group and comparing their responses to the sample of nonoffenders. This condition was employed as a means to investigate whether individuals inclined to commit any type of criminal offence differ, in reported sexual fantasies and personality traits, from individuals not criminally inclined.

Despite the magnitude of employed statistical investigations, clinical analyses of the data was also performed when deemed to be appropriate. Although such analyses fails to compare with the rigor of empirical testing, useful information may often be obtained through clinical assessment as an adjunctive measure, when conducting research in a relatively new domain, which helps to ensure completeness in interpreting the results. The use of clinical analyses in this study was minimal, however, when employed successfully, aided this author to acquire clearer conceptions of the nature and content of the sexual fantasies, background characteristics and personality traits delineated by the subjects who had participated in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis

The literature review presented in Chapter Two and the results found by the Masters study conducted in 1986 by this author revealed that sexual offenders reported specific fantasies congruent with their crimes. Furthermore, inconsistencies and lack of agreement regarding contributory background factors and personality characteristics have been shown to prevail in previous research studies of criminal offenders. Limitations in the methodology employed by these studies have yielded contradictory conclusions and inconsistent empirical support for their contentions. Thus, in an attempt to empirically assess the content of one's sexual fantasies, personality characteristics and background life experiences, the following research questions and methods of analyses were employed.

Research Questions

Several researchers have claimed that individuals prone to commit a sexual offence have experienced characteristic life histories, which differ from individuals who are not so inclined (Groth, 1979; Levine & Koenig, 1980; Scott, 1982). Research investigating aggression and criminal behavior have attempted to delineate similar background variables (e.g.

such as history of child abuse) as contributory to the commission of a violent crime (Pervin, 1984). However, such research remains fraught with methodological limitations and inconclusive results (Malamuth & Ceniti, 1986). In an attempt to more clearly delineate whether characteristic background experiences exist between types of offenders and/or nonoffenders, the following research question was posed:

> Do specific factors, such as history of physical or sexual abuse, appear as characteristic experiences in various types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders and to what degree?

In addition to determining whether background experience differences exist between offenders and nonoffenders, it was felt by this author that the sample of offenders required further description with regard to their criminal history. Thus, inclusion of a set of questions pertaining to their legal history were separately completed by the offenders for purposes of comparison and delineation of the offender's criminal characteristics. Inclusion of these criminal characteristics will allow greater ease for replication studies, potentially conducted in the future. Thus, the research question formulated to investigate this was:

Do various types of offenders differ in their reported criminal histories and if so, what differences may be described?

It is important to note that this investigation of the background information and criminal history was for descriptive purposes, rather than an attempt to establish empirical statistics as limitations in sample size and the unequal number of subjects in each group rendered computing statistical comparisons on this information to be tenuous. Despite this limitation, the results presented later in this chapter were provided to clearly describe the individuals sampled by this study.

Several researchers assert that sexual offenders report specific sexual fantasies congruent with their crimes. However, few studies include comparisons with other types of offenders (Gallant & Wormith, 1986) and those that do, fail to utilize measurement devices sensitive to the particular response styles characteristic of this type of population (McGovern & Nevid, 1986). These limitations will be addressed in this study through the investigation of the sexual fantasies reported by various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders using two separate measurement instruments, including, Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire and Furman's (1986) Sexual Fantasy Checklist. The research question adopted to investigate whether sexual offenders report fantasies characteristically different from other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders, was:

> Do sexual offenders differ from other criminal offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, as measured by Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire and Furman's (1986) Sexual Fantasy Checklist?

As it seemed likely that various types of offenders would differ from each other and from nonoffenders in their reported sexual fantasies, it was important to investigate how the content of the sexual fantasies differed between groups, by posing the following question:

> What sections of the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire and the Sexual Fantasy Checklist discriminate between the fantasy content described by subjects in each of the groups?

A further purpose of this study was to investigate personality differences between various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders. Historically, global personality comparisons of various types of offenders reveal a wide heterogeneity of personality types with few characteristic differences (Altrocchi, 1980; Griffin, 1977; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Kostash, 1975; Kozma & Zuckerman, 1983; Walters et al., 1988). The recurrent failure to find significant differences between various types of sex offenders and non-sexual offenders is likely dependent upon both the use of subjective research methods (i.e. such as single case qualitative analysis) and heavy reliance upon one instrument, the MMPI (Gallant & Wormith, 1986). The lack of "characteristic" psychopathology in criminal offenders was outlined in Chapter Two. This absence of pathology suggests that further research investigating nonpathological personality characteristics may be an appropriate area of investigation (MacCulloch, Snowden & Wood, 1983; Prendergast, 1979; Rada, 1978). In order to investigate whether commonalities in nonpathological personality characteristics exist between various types of offenders and nonoffenders, the following research question was posed:

> Do sexual offenders differ from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders on Jackson's (1967) Personality Research Form--Form E?

As the PRF--Form E is a personality test of nonpathological personality characteristics, which focuses upon the "need" determinants of behavior and social interaction, choice of this instrument appeared to be appropriate to meet the purposes of this study.

In order to determine whether specific personality traits or characteristics, as measured by the PRF--Form E, discriminate between types of offenders and/or nonoffenders, the following research question was posed:

> What subscales of the PRF--Form E discriminate between the personality characteristics reported by sexual offenders in comparison to other criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders?

The final area of investigation included in this study was to determine whether any relationship(s) between one's reported sexual fantasies and personality characteristics could be found. The following research question was formulated to investigate this possibility.

> Does any relationship(s) between one's personality characteristics (as measured by the PRF--Form E) and one's sexual fantasies (as measured by the SFC and the SFQ) exist, and if so; what is the nature of these relationships?

Method of Analysis

In order to empirically assess the posed research questions, the following statistical procedures were employed:

1. As a means to clearly delineate the legal characteristics of the sample of criminal offenders, descriptive statistics including frequency rates and percentages were employed. Computing statistical

significance upon this data was not considered to be appropriate as the various groups were unequal in number (sexual offenders--adult = 30; sexual offenders--minor = 24; murderers = 29; other offenders = 65) and the focus of this study was upon "types" of offenders and the presence of characteristic fantasies and personality characteristics, rather than upon degree of criminality. Nevertheless, descriptive information regarding the criminal characteristics of the offender sample was provided for purposes of generalizability and replication in future research studies.

2. In order to investigate whether characteristic background factors existed among the sample of offenders and nonoffenders sampled in this study; group frequency means and percentages were calculated for descriptive purposes.

It is important to note that a large number of statistical tests were conducted upon the results obtained by the two measures of one's sexual fantasies and the PRF--Form E measure of personality. In light of the large quantity of analyses performed, a brief summary of the utilized methods of analyses will be immediately presented and further delineation of these methods will be presented throughout the remainder of this Chapter, as they apply to the specific results. In general, however, the following empirical procedures were used to assess the posed research questions.

3. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) procedures were used to determine the existence of group differences on the SFQ, SFC and PRF--Form E measurement instruments, respectively. As this study involved comparing greater than two groups on a variety of variables, use of MANOVA procedures served to reduce Type I error and allowed assessment of the intercorrelations among dependent variables, which cannot be addressed using univariate analyses (Haase & Ellis, 1987). In order to assess the statistical significance of the obtained MANOVA effects, the Univariate F-test and associated probability levels were set at the .05 level of significance. In order for the F-test to reach significance, the obtained variance between each group must be greater than the obtained variance within each group. Thus, the MANOVA procedure indicates whether or not group differences exist, but fails to determine where these differences (i.e. on which dependent variable[s]) may lie. Following significant MANOVA findings, ANOVA procedures were employed to determine the nature of the observed difference and in what direction the difference lay (i.e. which group had a greater mean score).

4. More specifically, Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedures, using the Scheffe test of significance,

were used to determine on which section(s) or subscale(s) of the SFC, SFQ and PRF--Form E, observed group differences could be found and in what direction these differences lay.

5. Multivariate Profile Analysis graphically displaying the different profiles exhibited by the groups on the Sexual Fantasy Checklist and Personality Research Form--Form E, were completed. Use of this procedure assumes that differences between groups exist. In order to test this assumption, the Multivariate Profile Analysis compares the group profiles in the following three ways (Morrison, 1967): (1) a test of the equality of response means through a comparison of the vector of variable means (i.e. mean differences exist between groups across the entire set of variables); (2) a comparison of the parallelism of the profile line segments; and, (3) a test of the equality of the treatment levels through a comparison of the group means calculated over all variables. The results are indicated through an F-test using a Wilks-Lambda significant at the .05 level.

Finally, a number of comparisons across various group combinations on the various measurement instruments were completed. Initial simultaneous comparisons involving the four offender types (sex offender--adult versus sex offender--minor versus murderers versus "other" offenders) and nonoffender samples were completed. However, due to the limitations in sample size (i.e. small and unequal number of subjects per group), a second series of comparisons involving a collapsed group of sex offenders (sex offender--adult plus sex offender--minor) versus the murderers, "other" offenders and nonoffenders, were completed. A further premise for these comparisons was to investigate whether sex offenders, in general, differed from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders on the utilized measurement instruments. The final series of analyses involved collapsing the entire sample of criminal offenders into a single group (i.e. sex offenders--adult and minor plus murderers plus "other" offenders) and comparing their results to the results exhibited by the sample of nonoffenders. The purpose underlying these analyses was to investigate whether criminality itself may have some bearing on the obtained results. Specific delineation of the results obtained by these procedures are presented in the following section of this chapter.

Results

Criminal History

Previous research investigating the relationship between criminal factors and measures of personality and sexual fantasies, exhibited nonsignificant differences across offender types with regard to prior record, length of sentence or amount of time served in prison (Beit-Hallahmi, 1971, 1972; Gallant & Wormith, 1986; Wilson & MacLean, 1974). The consistency of these results across studies suggest that these criminal factors have little, if any relationship to offender reports of sexual fantasies and/or personality characteristics. Despite this consistency, further investigation of the criminal characteristics of the individuals comprising the offender sample in this study were completed for purposes of comparison to previous research and to ease replicability and comparisons for future research endeavors.

As a means to more clearly delineate the type(s) of crime(s) an individual offender committed, as well as to cross-tabulate their reported offence with the categorization conducted using the official prison population list, each offender was asked to indicate which of the offences presented in Table 4, he was currently serving time for.

It is important to note that each offender may have reported committing any number of crimes, including the core offence for which he had been convicted. Upon visual review of both the official list and the inmates report, consistencies in categorization and self-reporting were demonstrated. Thus, if an offender was classified by this investigator as a sexual offender against an adult, he admitted to committing this type of offence in his self-report. These results, therefore, substantiate the particular classification system of offender type used in this research and effectively serves to delineate the overall offence characteristics of the inmates sampled in this study.

Results from Table 4 indicate that of the 148 offenders sampled, between 26% and 38.7% of the sample committed

Table 4

Type of Reported Offence

Type of Offence Committed	Frequency	Percent
Robbery	47	26.0
Physical assault without weapon	16	8.8
Physical assault with weapon	13	7.2
Indecent assault against minor	11	6.1
Indecent assault against adult	6	3.3
Sexual assault--minor without intercourse	17	9.4
Sexual assault--adult without intercourse	14	7.7
Sexual assault--minor with intercourse	10	5.5
Sexual assault--adult with intercourse	19	10.5
Manslaughter	7	3.9
1st degree murder	3	1.7
2nd degree murder	12	6.6
Attempted murder	5	2.8
Attempted manslaughter	0	0.0
Other	70	38.7

robbery or some other type of property related offence; 16% committed a physical assault against another person, 15% committed an assault which resulted in death of another person, 21% committed a sexual assault of some type against a minor, and, 21.5% committed a sexual assault of some type against an adult. Although equality of the number of subjects across offender categories was not obtained and presents some limitations in statistical analyses of their responses, each group had greater than 20 subjects, which is an acceptable sample size for the statistical procedures used in this research (Dreiblatt, 1982; Jackson, 1977).

In response to a question investigating the amount of time each inmate had spent in jail for their current offence, subjects ranged between one day to more than 25 years, as demonstrated in Table 5.

Table 5

Period of Experienced Incarceration for Current Offence

Time Period	Frequency	Percent
1 day to 6 months	20	13.5
7 months to 12 months	24	16.2
1 year, 1 month to 2 years	31	20.9
2 years, 1 month to 5 years	42	28.4
5 years, 1 month to 10 years	17	11.5
10 years, 1 month to 25 years	11	7.4
More than 25 years	3	2.0

The results from this table demonstrate that the majority of offenders (approximately 80%) had spent no more than five years in jail for their current offence, with the highest proportion of individuals within the 2 year, 1 month to 5 year time period.

In response to a question requesting rates of previous convictions for any prior criminal offence, responses ranged from never before convicted to more that five previous convictions, as exhibited in Table 6.

Table 6

Prior Convictions for Any Criminal Offence

Prior Convictions	Frequency	Percent
Never before convicted	29	19.5
Once	20	13.4
Twice	16	10.7
Three times	14	9.4
Four times	15	10.1
Five times	3	2.0
More than five times	52	34.9

These results demonstrate that one-third of the offenders sampled had greater than five previous convictions for any criminal offence. Approximately 20% had no prior conviction history and the remaining 40% ranged between two to five previous convictions.

In response to a question investigating reoffending rates for prior crimes similar to their current conviction, approximately 36% reported prior convictions for a crime similar or exact in nature to their present crime, whereas 63.8% denied previous convictions for the same. Of the 36% of individuals who admitted prior convictions for a similar crime, reported periods served in jail for these offences ranged between two to greater than five prior incarcerations. Table 7 delineates the distribution of time periods spent in jail by the inmates for prior offences similar in nature to their current offence.

Table 7

Time Spent in Jail for Prior Similar Offence(s)

Times in Jail	Frequency	Percent
Once	94	63.1
Twice	13	8.7
Three times	14	9.4
Four times	8	5.4
Five times	5	3.6
More than five times	15	10.0

In summary the description of criminal characteristics demonstrates that a wide variety of inmates participated in this study. Although a relatively larger percentage of inmates committed some type of property related offence, the majority of inmates were relatively evenly distributed across crimes consisting of some type of assault, sexual assault or murder. The majority of offenders have spent between two years to five years in jail for their current offence and approximately two-thirds of the inmates had greater than two convictions for any type of criminal offence. Of the inmates who had previous convictions, close to 40% had committed crimes similar in nature to their current offence(s) and had spent time in jail for these offences. Although no attempt was made to statistically analyze the significance of these results, clear delineation of the inmate's criminal histories were obtained and cross-tabulation with the official prison population list, substantiated the categorization of each offender into the offence group chosen by this examiner. Utilization of statistical procedures designed to delineate significant differences between various types of offenders and criminal history would be appropriate for future research studies investigating whether a relationship between criminal history and personal characteristics and/or reported sexual fantasies exists.

Background Information

In order to determine whether specific factors commonly cited in the literature, such as history of sexual abuse, appear as characteristic experiences in various types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders, obtained group percentages were calculated. Although the Background Information Questionnaire included 20 questions (see Appendix III), only four comparisons were completed for the purposes of this research. Research findings obtained in the 1986 Masters study revealed that patterns of alcohol consumption, history of childhood sexual victimization and/or physical abuse and the use of pornography, differed between the offenders and nonoffenders. These results were consistent with literary conclusions and further research investigating whether different types of offenders exhibit characteristic trends, with regard to these four factors, was considered to be relevant to maintain consistency.

In order to determine the existence of characteristic trends, group percentages were calculated. Restrictions on further statistical analyses, except in the case of history of sexual abuse, limited the establishment of significant group differences; as small and unequal cell sizes across a large number of variables would render tenuous conclusions (Jackson, 1977). Despite this limitation, the establishment of characteristic trends was deemed to be a valuable exercise aimed towards increasing understanding of possible experiences commonly shared by the individuals participating in this research project. Finally, a Chi Square analysis was completed upon the results obtained from the question investigating history of sexual abuse. This procedure was accepted as only two responses were possible, yielding acceptable cell sizes to allow comparisons of variance between group means.

The results displayed in Table 8 demonstrates that differences between groups in alcohol consumption were not readily discernible. All five groups were variously distributed among the consumption categories, with the exception of the sex offenders--Adult group, which had a zero percent group frequency rate for the "never" category. These results are inconsistent with literary claims that alcohol abuse is prevalent in criminal offenders (George & Marlatt, 1986; Lang & Sibrel, 1989). However, review of the rates for "everyday" consumption reveals that all four

Table 8

Consumption of Alcohol

How often do you drink alcohol?

	Every day %	once a week %	3x a week %	5x a week %	few x a month %	Never	Other	
S O--A	17.9	17.9	17.9	10.7	17.9	.0	17.9	100%
S O--M	8.3	8.3	16.7	8.3	25.0	12.5	20.8	100%
Murder	17.2	20.7	27.6	3.4	3.4	17.2	10.3	100%
Other	21.5	16.9	15.4	13.8	18.5	7.7	6.2	100%
Non	3.3	23.3	23.3	16.7	23.3	6.7	3.3	100%

groups of criminal offenders reported a higher percentage of daily drinking, ranging between 8.3% to 21.5%, as compared to the nonoffenders, where only 3.3% admitted to daily consumption patterns. Thus, it appears that a greater percentage of offenders engage in daily consumption of alcohol than do nonoffenders, which provided partial support for literary claims. Further research investigating specific patterns of alcohol consumption across large groups of offenders and nonoffenders is required prior to completing more conclusive statements.

Results from Table 9 indicate that significant differences between groups on history of sexual abuse were obtained at less than the .001 level of significance ($X^2 = 20.82$ $p = .003$). Greater than half of the sex offenders--adult and close to half of the sex offenders--

Table 9

History of Sexual Abuse

Before the age of 16, did you have any sexual activity which you did not want, and which included touching?

Group	Yes%	No%
Sex offenders--Adult	53.0	46.7
Sex offenders--Minor	41.7	58.3
Murderers	24.1	75.9
Other offenders	26.2	73.8
Non offenders	3.3	96.7

$X^2 = 20.82$ $p = .0003$

minor reported experiencing sexual abuse in their younger years. Approximately 25% of the murderers and "other" offenders reported a similar history, whereas, only 3% of the nonoffenders reported experiencing sexual abuse during their childhood and adolescent years. These results provide only partial support to literary claims that childhood sexual victims are more likely than other offenders and/or nonoffenders to become adult sexual offenders (Altrocchi, 1980; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Levine & Koenig, 1980; Long, 1982; Longo & Groth, 1983) and further suggests that this type of victimization may be related to other types of criminal tendencies. Conclusive results, however, were not demonstrated and suggest that sexual victimization in childhood cannot solely account for adult commissions of sexual or other types of crime.

Reported differences between groups on use of pornographic magazines were not clearly observable. However, review of the results in Table 10 clearly indicate that all groups "sometimes" engaged in viewing pornographic materials. These results are consistent with the results obtained in this author's Masters study (Furman, 1986), which found that the majority of individuals sampled (Nonoffenders = 70%, Sex offenders = 60%, and Rapists = 66.7%) "sometimes" utilized pornography. Clinical interviews with the sex offenders and rapists sampled in the

1986 study further revealed that a small number of offenders admitted that, immediately prior to the commission of their crimes, their tendency to read pornography specifically focused upon their acted out crimes, increased. These individuals further claimed that the pornography increased their state of arousal, legitimized their desires, but was not directly responsible for the commission of their crimes.

Table 10

Use of Pornography

Do you read pornographic magazines?

Group	Never %	Sometimes %	Fairly Often %	Very Often %	as Often as I Can %
Sex O--Adult	16.7	60.0	16.7	3.3	3.3
Sex O--Minor	20.8	58.3	12.5	4.2	4.2
Murder	17.2	44.8	24.1	10.3	3.4
Other	10.8	49.2	29.2	3.1	7.7
Non	20.0	66.7	10.0	3.3	0.0

Although a similar inquiry could not be conducted within this study, due to the blind sampling procedures, it is hypothesized that similar findings would have resulted if clinical interviews had been obtained. Future research empirically testing this claim is required, and is warranted for development of preventative therapeutic techniques in treating sex offenders who use pornography to liberate their fantasies into the actual commission of a sexual assault.

In summary, group differences in reported use of pornography was not established. All five groups exhibited the highest response to the "sometimes" category, which by itself is not revealing. However, previous research by this author (Furman, 1986) demonstrated that clinical interviews provided evidence for literary claims, which assert pornography may be a contributory, but not a causal factor in the commission of a sexual offense (Beneke, 1982; Feshbach & Malamuth, 1978; Freeman-Longo & Wall, 1986; Gallant & Wormith, 1986; Langevin et al., 1988; MacCulloch et al., 1983; Malamuth & Briere, 1986; Malamuth & Donnerstein, 1984). The inconsistency of the results found in the present study is attributed to failure in posing a series of research questions designed to delineate not only frequency of use, but also the nature and context during which engagement in pornographic utilization, occurs. Future research incorporating these measures may prove to be revealing and further substantiate the literary claims described above.

Results from Table 11 indicate that greater than approximately 65% of the nonoffenders had; never been physically abused (26.7%) or if disciplined, had received punishment less than once a month (43.3%). Ten percent had been physically abused more than once a month, approximately 13% experienced physical abuse once a week and none reported physical abuse on a greater than once a week basis. This is in contrast with the four offender groups, which ranged from 3.8% (Sex offenders--Adult) to 16.1% (Other offenders) reported instances of physical abuse occurring at rates of greater than once a week. Furthermore, their reported histories of physical abuse were distributed more evenly

Table 11

History of Physical Abuse

As a child, were you ever physically abused (i.e. slapped, kicked, punched, hit with a belt or stick, etc.) by a parent?

Group	Never	Less than Once a Month	Once a Month	Greater than Once a Month	Once a Week	Greater than Once a Week
Sex O--Adult	15.4	38.5	19.2	3.8	19.2	3.8
Sex O--Minor	28.6	23.8	14.3	14.3	4.8	14.3
Murderer	34.6	23.1	11.5	19.2	3.8	7.7
Other	24.2	27.4	6.5	14.5	11.3	16.1
Non	26.7	43.3	6.7	10.0	13.3	0.0

across the categories than the nonoffenders, which rendered difficulties in interpretation. The similarities across groups demonstrate little support for literary contentions that children who are victims of physical violence are more likely to become violent in some manner once they grow up, than are individuals who experience little or no violence in childhood (Gallant & Wormith, 1986; Rowe & Osgood, 1984; Shorkey, 1978). It is important to recognize that not all individuals who experience physical abuse become adult criminal offenders and conversely individuals who never experienced physical abuse as a child have indeed been convicted of a criminal offence (i.e. sex offenders--adult = 15.4%, sex offenders--minor = 28.6%, murderers = 34.6%, and other offenders = 24.2%). Thus, although physical abuse may or may not be present in the background histories of criminally inclined individuals, further research investigating the personal dispositions and strategies used to survive childhood abuse, are required to more accurately delineate the possible aggregation of factors related to the development of an individual/criminal.

In summary, the background information obtained on the individual participants of this study revealed significant differences in history of sexual abuse, with sex offenders more likely than other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders to report such experiences. Although statistical tests of significance were not conducted on the other three variables, characteristic trends in alcohol consumption, use of pornography and history of physical abuse were revealed. As statistical significance for the demonstrated differences could not be ascertained (due to small and unequal cell sizes), more conclusive statements regarding influential background factors, may not be made. Nevertheless, these results are consistent with the Master's study conducted by this author in 1986 and further exhibited consistent findings to previous studies surveyed throughout the literature. Justification for future research utilizing larger samples and specifically designed surveys incorporating a series of in depth questions pertaining to these factors, appears to be a necessary and warranted area for future investigations concerning criminally inclined individuals.

Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire (Wilson, 1978)

In order to investigate whether sexual offenders differ from other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire (SFQ) was employed as the first of the two measurement instruments used in this assessment. Differences between groups on the four factors (exploratory, intimate, impersonal and sadomasochistic) and five activities (daytime fantasies, fantasies during intercourse and masturbation, dreams while asleep, have done in reality, and would like to do in reality), included within the (SFQ), were assessed by MANOVA and ANOVA procedures of analyses.

The first analysis compared the five types of offenders (sex offenders--adult, sex offender--minor, murderers, other offenders and nonoffenders) on the SFQ using MANOVA procedures to determine whether group differences existed during simultaneous comparisons. Significant differences between groups on the four factors (intimate, exploratory, impersonal and sadomasochistic) of the SFQ were exhibited (F = 1.96, p = .01). Review of the results presented in Table 11 revealed that differences on the factor measuring intimate sexual fantasies was responsible for the observed group differences.

Table 12

MANOVA on Four Factors of the SFQ:

Five Groups

Factor	F. ratio	Probability
Exploratory	.66	.62
Intimate	3.55	.00*
Impersonal	1.18	.32
Sadomasochistic	1.11	.35

Thus, it may be concluded that the offenders and nonoffenders exhibited significant differences in reported sexual fantasies measuring intimate forms of sexual activities. High scores on this factor (a score of 15 or more) implies deep involvement in serious personal relationships, with a limited number of sex partners and low scores imply lack of commitment and little interest for intimate sexual activities within the context of deep personal relationships (Wilson, 1981). In Gallant & Wormith's (1986) study, only the sample of rapists reported above average scores on this factor.

In order to determine the direction of the group differences on the Intimacy factor of the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire, Univariate Analysis of Variance tests comparing each group with the others, were employed. Table 13 presents these results.

Results from this table demonstrate that the sample of sex offenders--minor significantly differed from the nonoffenders on the Intimacy factor of the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire. However, further significant differences between groups on this factor were not found. Thus, it appears that the sex offenders--minor reported lower response rates (estimated mean = 84.21) than the nonoffenders (estimated mean = 126.47), suggesting that the sex offenders--minor have fewer fantasies involving intimate and long term committed relationships than do individuals who have never committed any type of criminal offence.

Table 13

Differences between Groups on the

Intimacy Factor of the SFQ

Group Comparisons	Observed Difference	Required Difference*
1 vs 2	16.79	41.32
1 vs 3	10.00	39.29
1 vs 4	10.80	33.30
1 vs 5	25.47	38.96
2 vs 3	6.79	41.63
2 vs 4	27.59	36.04
2 vs 5	42.26*	41.32
3 vs 4	20.80	33.69
3 vs 5	35.47	39.29
4 vs 5	14.67	33.30

Group 1 = Sex offenders--Adult
Group 2 = Sex offenders--Minor
Group 3 = Murderers
Group 4 = "Other" offenders
Group 5 = Nonoffenders

*Note: In following tables each group will be referred to as exhibited in this key.

Although statistical significance was found to exist only between two groups on one factor of the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire, review of the Table of Means (Table 14) suggests the presence of characteristic trends, which may have reached significance had the sample size for each group been greater.

Table 14

Table of Means on SFQ for Four Factors

		Factors			
N	Group	Exploratory X	Intimate X	Impersonal X	Sadomasochistic X
30	1	41.03	101.00	65.40	26.37
24	2	36.75	84.21	46.88	14.79
29	3	31.62	91.00	49.52	18.10
65	4	41.49	111.80	65.49	20.89
30	5	41.17	126.47	60.53	24.17

A review of these results demonstrates that a possible trend is existent. On all four factors, group 2 (sex offenders--minor) and group 3 (murderers) exhibit lower group means scores as compared to the other three groups. Although significance was not obtained, these results suggest that the sex offenders--minor and murderers reported fewer overall sexual fantasies on the SFQ than did the various other types of offenders (sex offenders--adult and "other" offenders) and/or nonoffenders. This finding suggests a number of possibilities including: 1) that the SFQ fails to adequately measure the types of sexual fantasies a child molester and murderer reportedly engages in; 2) that these individuals, in fact, fantasize or report fantasies to a lesser extent than do other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders; 3) that the SFQ fails to adequately measure sexual fantasies; 4) that these individuals differ in their reported fantasies; 5) that sampling bias influenced these results; or, 6) that no differences exist. These possibilities require further research as does a resultant question as to whether the frequency of one's fantasies influence the type of fantasies one may indulge.

In order to determine whether various types of sex offenders differ from other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, comparisons between a collapsed group of sex offenders (sex offenders--adult and sex offenders--minor) to the other groups on the four factors of the SFQ, were completed. Collapsing the two groups of sex offenders into a single group was believed to be a justifiable procedure in light of the small, available sample size of individuals, convicted of a sexual offence.

The Multivariate Analysis of Variance on the collapsed group of sex offenders versus the two other offender groups and the nonoffenders on the four factors of the SFQ revealed significant differences on the factor measuring Intimate sexual fantasies (F = 7.67, p = .00). Significant differences on the remaining three factors were not found (Exploratory F = .80, p. = .50; Impersonal F = 1.15, p = .33; and Sadomasochism F = .37, p = .78).

ANOVA procedures conducted to establish where the between group differences on the Intimacy factor lay, revealed that significant differences existed between the sex offenders and "other" offenders (F = 12.81, p = .0004) and between the sex offenders and nonoffenders (F = 17.84, p = .00). Overall, the sex offenders exhibited lower response frequencies to these items than did the "other" offenders and nonoffenders. Thus, an individual inclined to commit a sexual offence is less involved in fantasizing about intimate committed relationships than are other types of criminals or nonoffenders. This finding provides some support for literary contentions that sex offenders offend as a result of absence of significant interpersonal relationships (Groth, 1979; Groth & Birnbaum, 1978; Lowen, 1983). However, many offenders are married and investigation of the quality of their relationships prior to offending is required, before more conclusive statements may be made. Furthermore, the relationship between lack of intimate sexual fantasies, actual intimate relationships and tendencies to commit a sexual assault has yet to receive direct investigation. Thus to assume that absence of fantasy is related to poor intimate relations, which henceforth results in a "need" to act in a deviant manner remains, in fact, only an assumption requiring empirical inquiry.

The final comparison completed on the four factors of the SFQ, involved collapsing the entire group of offenders into a single group and investigating differences with the nonoffender sample. Results similar to those found in the five group analysis and four group analysis, were obtained. More specifically, significant differences on the Intimacy factor (F = 31.54, p = .0000) were exhibited and further suggests that criminals in general, differ from nonoffenders in fantasies measuring intimacy in sexual relations.

In summary, differences between groups on the sexual intimacy factor of the SFQ were clearly demonstrated. Differences on this factor was greatest between the sex offenders--minor and nonoffenders, however, the collapsed group of sex offenders and the collapsed group of criminals exhibited similar differences when compared to the sample of nonoffenders. These results suggest that criminality or individuals with criminal tendencies tend to fantasize less with regard to intimate sexual fantasies than do individuals not harboring criminal tendencies. This tendency may be associated with the lack of regard for others exhibited in the commission of a criminal offence and may be an interesting avenue for future investigation.

The next analysis conducted upon the data involved rating the frequency with which subjects engaged in fantasizing the behaviors described within the 40 items presented in the SFQ. MANOVA tests completed on the five activities revealed significant differences between the five groups in reported frequencies of fantasizing, during both the daytime (F = 2.61, p = 0.04) and desire (F = 3.19, p = .01) conditions. Results from the ANOVA tests failed to delineate in which direction the groups differed during daytime fantasizing activities. However, the sample of nonoffenders exhibited higher frequency rates of "desires for future behaviours" than did the sex offenders--minor (observed difference = 24.95, required difference = 24.80, F = 3.19, p = .01). One might argue that this result is expected given the sex offenders' present state of incarceration, however, if this were true, similar frequency rates would likely have been demonstrated by the entire criminal sample, and such results were not exhibited.

In comparing the collapsed group of sex offenders to the rest of the sample, similar results were obtained with significant differences exhibited on both the daytime fantasizing (F = 3.51, p = .02) and desire (F = 7.07, p = .0002) response categories. The group means were higher for the sex offenders in both conditions, which suggests that sex offenders engage in specific fantasizing activities (i.e. daytime fantasizing and desire to commit the act in reality) to a greater extent than do other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders.

It is important to note that the group comparisons demonstrated significant differences on the "desire" variable when the sex offenders were compared with the other offenders (F = 15.87, p = .0001) and the nonoffenders (F = 14.39, p = .0002), but not with the murderers (F = 3.09, p = .08). These results suggest that sex offenders and murderers report similar frequency rates of fantasizing about engaging in specific types of sexual activities, but the nature of these activities was not revealed by the analyses conducted upon the factors underlying the SFQ. The importance of more clearly determining the nature of these results rests upon the assumption that these fantasies precipitate actual behaviour. If this is true, future research designed to investigate this finding may prove to be important in reducing the recidivision rates of such violent types of offenders.

The final analysis involved comparing the collapsed sample of offenders to the nonoffenders on the variables measuring frequency in fantasizing activities. The results from this analysis revealed that the criminal offenders significantly differed in sexual fantasizing frequencies during daytime fantasizing (F = 21.22, p = .00) fantasies during intercourse and/or masturbation (F = 7.49, p = .01) and desires to complete such acts in reality (F = 19.23, p = .00). These results suggest that criminals report higher levels of engaging in sexual fantasizing than do nonincarcerated individuals who have not committed any criminal offence. However, determination of the underlying reason for these results remains unclear and may have been influenced by sample size, response bias, subjects' expectations, and/or state of incarceration. These influences remain to be determined before more conclusive statements concerning the function of an individual's sexual fantasies may be ascertained. Development of specific surveys investigating both the function and frequency of an individual's sexual fantasies, appears to be an important area of investigation in future research endeavors involving criminal populations.

Sexual Fantasy Checklist (Furman, 1986-1988)

The Sexual Fantasy Checklist (SFC) developed by this author was the second measurement device utilized to establish whether sexual offenders differed from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders in reported sexual of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies. Comparisons were conducted on the total five group sample (sex offenders--adult versus sex offenders--minor versus murderers versus "other" offenders versus nonoffenders) followed by the four group sample (collapsed sex offender group versus murderers versus "other" offenders versus nonoffenders) and finally using only two groups (criminals versus nonoffenders).

The results from the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) procedure to determine between group differences are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

MANOVA Results on the SFC

	F=	p=	1 Hotelling T^2 Test	Wilks Lambda
MANOVA 5 groups	1.409	.04	F-ratio=1.47 p=0.02	F-ratio=1.44 p=.03
MANOVA 4 groups	2.502	.00	F-ratio=2.87 p=0.00	F-ratio=2.68 p=0.00
MANOVA 2 groups	9.27	.00	F-ratio=9.27 p=0.00	F-ratio=9.27 p=0.00

Results from the MANOVA conducted on five groups indicated significant differences at the .05 level, suggesting that the various offenders and nonoffenders reported discriminant overall sexual fantasies on the Sexual Fantasy Checklist. Collapsing the sample of sexual offenders into a single group increased the reported differences, reaching a significance level at less than the .001 level. This suggests that sex offenders in particular differ from other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders on reported overall sexual fantasies. Similarly, collapsing all offenders into a single group and comparing responses to the nonoffenders resulted in significant differences at less than the .001 level. This suggests that individuals who have committed a criminal offence differ in reported sexual fantasies from individuals who have not committed a criminal offence. Although sample size increments may have influenced these results, similar trends would likely be demonstrated if each separate group consisted of a greater number of individuals.

Attempts to more clearly delineate group differences in reported sexual fantasies were conducted using Univariate F-Ratio Tests (ANOVA procedures) for each separate subscale included within the Sexual Fantasy Checklist. The results for the various sample compositions are presented in Tables 16, 17, and 18. Table 16 demonstrates that the five group sample exhibited significant differences at the .05 level, on two subscales including Spiritual Worship and Rejection and Insecurity. Significant group differences on the remaining subscales were not exhibited.

Collapsing the two sex offenders groups into a single sample revealed an increase in differences found between groups on the subscales, as exhibited in Table 17. These results suggest that sexual offenders differed from the other offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies measuring: 1) Bondage; 2) Seduction and Courtship; 3) Love, Friendship, and Intimacy; 4) Spiritual Worship; 5) Submission and Dependence; and 6) Rejection and Insecurity.

Table 16

Results ANOVA 5 Groups on SFC

Subscales	F-Ratio	Probability
Power	0.54	.71
Bondage	1.01	.41
Courtship	1.54	.19
Aggression	0.84	.50
Anger	0.65	.63
Sadism	0.43	.79
Masochism	1.06	.38
Love	1.84	.12
Spiritual	2.91	.02*
Submission	1.78	.14
Rejection	2.33	.06*
Consent	0.099	.41

Table 17

Results ANOVA 4 Groups on SFC

Subscales	F-Ratio	Probability
Power	0.87	.46
Bondage	3.13	.03*
Courtship	3.27	.02*
Aggression	1.80	.15
Anger	0.97	.41
Sadism	0.80	.50
Masochism	1.91	.13
Love	4.41	.01*
Spirit	5.70	.00*
Submission	4.02	.01*
Rejection	3.10	.03*
Consent	1.55	.20

Table 18

Results ANOVA 2 Groups on SFC

Subscales	F-Ratio	Probability
Power	0.98	.32
Bondage	8.77	.00*
Courtship	10.74	.00*
Aggression	1.86	.17
Anger	5.56	.02*
Sadism	2.86	.10
Masochism	0.04	.84
Love	16.35	.00*
Spirituality	23.03	.00*
Submission	10.90	.00*
Rejection	12.89	.00*
Consent	3.80	.05*

Collapsing the entire sample of offenders into a single group and comparing their responses to the nonoffenders revealed further differences on the subscales of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist. These differences are exhibited in Table 18.

Results from Table 18 exhibit significant differences at or below the .01 level of significance on subscales measuring: 1) Bondage; 2) Seduction and Courtship; 3) Anger and Hatred; 4) Love, Friendship, and Intimacy; 5) Spiritual Worship; 6) Submission and Dependence; 7) Rejection and Insecurity; and, 8) Mutual Sexual Activities. It is interesting to note that subscale differences between the two-group condition, not exhibited within the five-group and four-group comparison conditions, included sexual fantasies measuring anger and hatred and mutual sexual activities. The presence of group differences on the subscale measuring mutual sexual activities is consistent with the results demonstrated on the SFQ measuring intimate fantasies, which were found to discriminate between all groups of subjects.

In an attempt to determine in which direction the differences lay between groups on the subscales, Univariate Analysis of Variance tests employing mean square differences were completed. These results revealed that the sample of nonoffenders were less likely to endorse sexual fantasies of spiritual worship ($F = 2.91$ $p = .02$) and rejection and insecurity (F = 2.33 p = .06) than were the four groups of offenders. Further differences in direction computed upon the subscales were not achieved. Failure to achieve significant differences in direction was likely a function of small sample sizes, simultaneously computed upon a large number of variables. This finding is consistent with the results obtained in the initial Masters study (Furman, 1986) and further investigation of differences between groups on the three factors descriptive of the Checklist and analysis of group profiles were similarly determined to be justifiable investigations to meet this limitation and complete the goals of this research.

As previously described, prior research on the Sexual Fantasy Checklist (Furman, 1986) revealed the presence of three factors found to underlie the instrument, including: 1) sexual aggression; 2) mutual sexual gratification; and, 3) rejection and insecurity. Discernible group differences were initially found on the factor measuring sexual aggression (rapists exhibited higher response rates than nonoffenders) but not on the factors measuring mutual sexual gratification and rejection and insecurity (Furman, 1986).

In contrast, the results of the present study presented in Table 19, demonstrate group differences on another of the three factors found to underlie the test. More specifically, significant group differences were not found

Table 19

ANOVA on 3 Factors of SFC

Factor	Groups	F-ratio	Probability
1	1 vs 2 vs 3 vs 4 vs 5	0.60	.66
2	1 vs 2 vs 3 vs 4 vs 5	0.61	.65
3	1 vs 2 vs 3 vs 4 vs 5	2.33	.06*
1	1 & 2 vs 3, 4 & 5	0.92	.43
2	1 & 2 vs 3, 4 & 5	1.11	.35
3	1 & 2 vs 3, 4 & 5	3.10	.03
1	1 & 2 vs 3	0.03	.86
2	1 & 2 vs 3	1.47	.23
3	1 & 2 vs 3	0.77	.38
1	1 & 2 vs 4	1.83	.18
2	1 & 2 vs 4	0.25	.62
3	1 & 2 vs 4	0.01	.93
1	1 & 2 vs 5	0.05	.82
2	1 & 2 vs 5	2.62	.11
3	1 & 2 vs 5	7.14	.01*
1	1, 2, 3, 4 vs 5	0.46	.50
2	1, 2, 3, 4 vs 5	2.67	.10
3	1, 2, 3, 4 vs 5	12.89	.00*

Factor 1 = Sexual Aggression
Factor 2 = Mutual Sexual Gratification
Factor 3 = Rejection and Insecurity
* = significant difference at or below the .05 level of significance

Group 1 = Sex Offender -- Adult
Group 2 = Sex Offender -- Minor
Group 3 = Murderers
Group 4 = Other Offenders
Group 5 = Nonoffenders

on factors delineating sexually aggression or mutual sexual gratification. However, significant group differences were found on the factor measuring fantasies descriptive of rejection and insecurity. Although significant differences on this factor were found within the simultaneous five-group comparison condition (F = 2.33, p = .06), these differences increased during comparisons of the collapsed group of sex offenders versus the nonoffenders (F = 7.14, p = .01) and between the collapsed group of criminal offenders versus the nonoffenders (F = 12.89, p = .0004). These results suggest that several types of criminals, overall, fantasize themes of rejection and insecurity more frequently than do nonoffenders. The extent of this difference, however, may have been influenced by the significant differences found between the sex offenders and nonoffenders (F = 7.14, p = .01), rendering difficulties in interpretation. That is, the results suggest that differences between the entire five groups were smaller than those differences demonstrated between the collapsed group of sex offenders to nonoffenders. However, collapsing the entire four samples of offenders into a single group increased the differences found when comparisons were made to the nonoffending group, as compared to the other sample conditions. Thus, criminality in general, followed by inclination to commit a sexual offence appears to have a relationship with reported sexual fantasies concerning themes of rejection and insecurity.

These results were inconsistent with the results obtained in the 1986 study, which suggests that the individuals sampled in this study differed in reported fantasies than the individuals sampled in the 1986 study. One possible explanation for this difference is that the individuals sampled in 1986 were undergoing psychotherapeutic treatment focused upon reconstructing their deviant sexual fantasies and improving their self-esteem. Thus, recognition and admission of harboring such fantasies may have been a function of receiving treatment. Research investigating differences between treated and nontreated sex offenders and the relationship of self-esteem to expressed sexual fantasies is required to understand the nature and accuracy of this hypothetical proposition.

Use of a Multivariate Profile Analysis, which graphically displays group profiles was conducted to gather further understanding of the nature of the group differences on the Sexual Fantasy Checklist. Figure 1 and Table 20 display lack of significant differences exhibited between the five groups on the 12 subsections of the SFC ($F = 1.4$, $p = .03$). This suggests that use of discriminant profiles of the subscales measured by the SFC may not be an appropriate measure to observe. However, small sample size may have contributed to these results as the following comparisons yielded more favorable findings, supporting future use and investigation of this type of analyses.

Despite failure to obtain statistical significance on the profile analysis of the five groups, significant differences were obtained within the profile analysis of the group of combined sexual offenders (sex offender-adult and sex offender-minor), in comparison to the murderers, other offenders and nonoffenders (F = 1.64, p = .01). The profile analysis for this sample composition is presented in Figure 2, and the Table of Means (Table 21) related to the exhibited profile. These results indicate significant differences across group profiles in reported sexual fantasies. Analyses testing the nature of these differences (Table 21) indicate that the profiles exhibited by the four groups differed: in the centroids across groups (e.g. mean differences exist between groups across the entire set of variables; F = 1.64, p = .01); the shapes of their respective profiles are unequal (F = 1.65, p = .01); and their treatment levels across each section vary, which suggests heterogeneity in item content across subscales.

Figure 1
Profile Analysis of SFC on Sex Offenders
Murderers, and Non Offenders

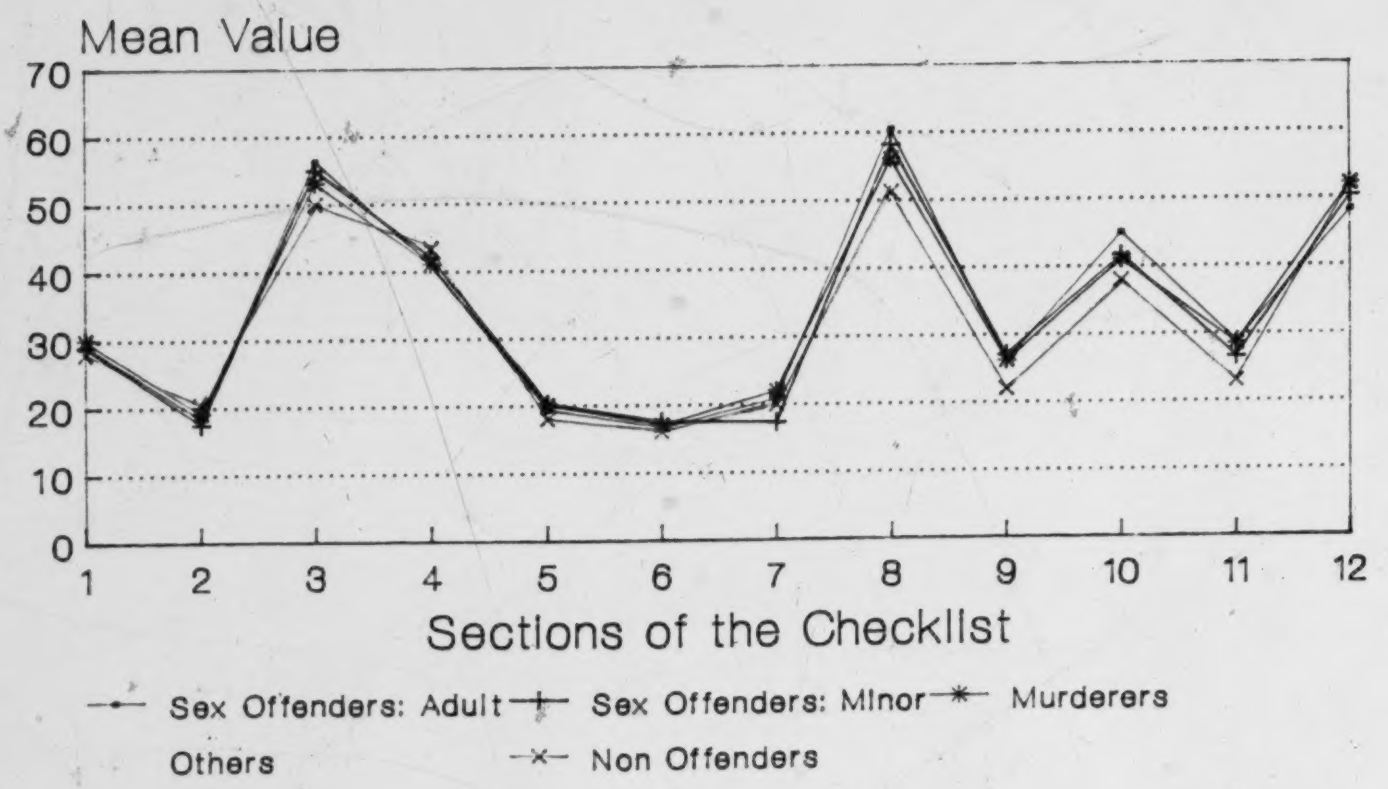

Table 20

Table of Means for Figure 1

Group	Sections of the Checklist					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sex Off.--Adult N = 30	29.2	18.2	56.3	41.0	19.3	16.6
Sex Off.--Minor N = 24	29.0	17.4	55.0	42.0	20.2	17.5
Murderers N = 29	30.0	19.0	53.0	41.0	20.0	17.0
Others N = 65	31.0	19.2	54.5	45.0	20.0	17.0
Non Offenders N = 30	28.0	20.5	50.0	43.4	18.0	16.1

Group	Sections of the Checklist					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Sex Off.--Adult N = 30	20.9	60.5	26.2	45.0	28.7	48.2
Sex Off.--Minor N = 24	17.3	58.2	27.0	41.6	26.5	50.3
Murderers N = 29	21.0	57.0	25.0	41.0	26.4	47.3
Others N = 65	22.0	56.1	26.1	41.0	28.4	52.0
Non Offenders N = 30	20.0	51.3	22.0	38.0	23.0	52.0

Lambda = .6681

F-ratio = 1.44, Probability = .03

Figure 2
Profile Analysis of SFC on Sex Offenders (Combined), Murderers, and Non Offenders

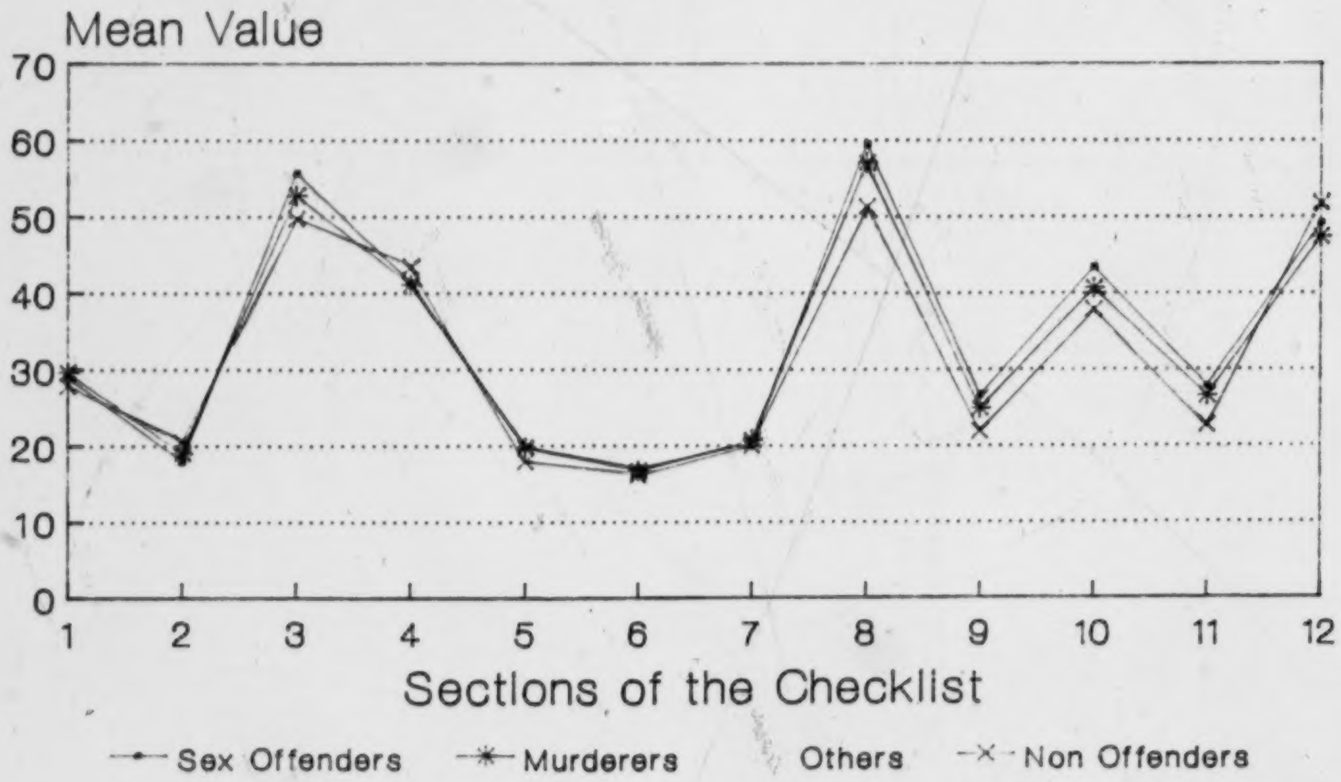

Table 21

Table of Means for Figure 2

Group	Sections of the Checklist 1	2	3	4	5	6
Sex Offenders N = 54	28.96	17.85	55.69	41.28	19.76	17.00
Murderers N = 29	29.55	18.93	52.69	41.03	19.69	16.62
Others N = 65	30.62	19.28	54.45	45.00	19.74	16.75
Non Offenders N = 30	27.83	20.47	49.73	43.40	17.90	16.10

Group	Sections of the Checklist 7	8	9	10	11	12
Sex Offenders N = 54	20.20	59.48	26.56	43.43	27.72	49.13
Murderers N = 29	20.66	56.97	24.79	40.59	26.41	47.35
Others N = 65	21.97	56.14	26.12	40.75	28.43	52.00
Non Offenders N = 30	19.97	51.30	21.87	37.83	22.63	51.77

F-ratio = 1.64, Probability = .01

Table 22

Multivariate Profile Analysis on Four Groups

Test	F-ratio	Probability
Equality of Response Means	1.64	.01
Parallelism of Line Segments	1.65	.01
Equality of Treatment Levels	185.85	.00

Although these results indicate differences in mean profile characteristics, specific delineation of where the differences lie across subsections of the checklist were not statistically determined (as was previously demonstrated in the ANOVA tests for group differences). However, these results provide support for the contention that clinical differences between sex offenders in general and various criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders exist in reported sexual fantasies. For instance, review of Figure 2 demonstrates that sex offenders have higher levels of responding (i.e. higher group frequency means) on subscales measuring seduction and courtship (section 3), love, friendship, and intimacy (section 8), and submission and dependence (section 10). It is interesting to note that profile analysis results from the 1986 study revealed higher response rates for sexual offenders on sexually aggressive (section 4), sadistic (section 6), submission and dependence (section 10) and mutually gratifying sexual fantasies (section 12). The only overlap between the two studies is on section 10, which measures fantasies of submission and dependence. Despite the inconsistencies in results across studies, inclusion of the other two offender groups yielding higher response rates on various sections of the checklist may shield similarities when sex offenders are singularly compared to the nonoffenders included in this study. Conversely, these results may indicate that similarities, rather than differences in sexual fantasies exist among various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders.

Clinical evaluation of the profile exhibited in Figure 2 comparing the response rates of the sex offenders to the nonoffenders reveals that sex offenders exhibited higher response rates to sections of the checklist measuring:

1. power and domination (section 1);
2. seduction and courtship (section 3);
3. anger and hatred (section 5);
4. love, friendship, and intimacy (section 8);
5. spiritual worship (section 9);
6. submission and dependence (section 10); and
7. rejection and insecurity (section 11).

Figure 2 further reveals that nonoffenders exhibit higher response rates than sex offenders on sections of the checklist measuring:

1. bondage (section 2);
2. sexual aggression (section 4); and
3. mutual sexual activities (section 12).

A possible explanation for the increase in differences from the 1986 study was the increase in sex offender sample size and decrease in nonoffender sample size. Furthermore, the offenders sampled in the 1986 study were involved with intensive psychotherapeutic treatment focused upon their sexual offences, which may have influenced their responding and render comparisons across studies as tenuous, given that the sample of sexual offenders in the present study had received little or no treatment at the time of this research. Therefore, future research investigating the differences in sexual fantasies between larger samples of treated sex offenders, untreated sex offenders and nonoffenders appears to be necessary for more conclusive determination of the utility of completing profile analyses on the SFC.

The final profile analysis conducted upon the Sexual Fantasy Checklist involved comparing the nonoffenders to the entire sample of criminal offenders, as a means to investigate whether criminal tendencies in general influenced profile distributions. Results from this analysis are presented in Figure 3, followed by a related Table of Means (Table 23) for the two groups.

Results from Figure 3 and Table 23 clearly indicate significant differences between criminals and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies at less than the .001 level of significance. The criminal offenders exhibited higher response rates on sections of the checklist measuring:

1. power and domination (section 1);
2. seduction and courtship (section 3);
3. anger and hatred (section 5);
4. sadism (section 6);
5. masochism (section 7);
6. love, friendship, and intimacy (section 8);
7. spiritual worship (section 9);
8. submission and dependence (section 10); and
9. rejection and insecurity (section 11).

Nonoffenders exhibited higher response rates to sections of the Checklist measuring:

1. bondage (section 2);
2. sexual aggression (section 4); and
3. mutual sexual gratification (section 12).

It is important to note that although higher response rates were exhibited by the nonoffenders on section 4 (sexual aggression) these differences were decreased remarkably (as

Figure 3
Profile Analysis of SFC on
Criminals and Non Offenders

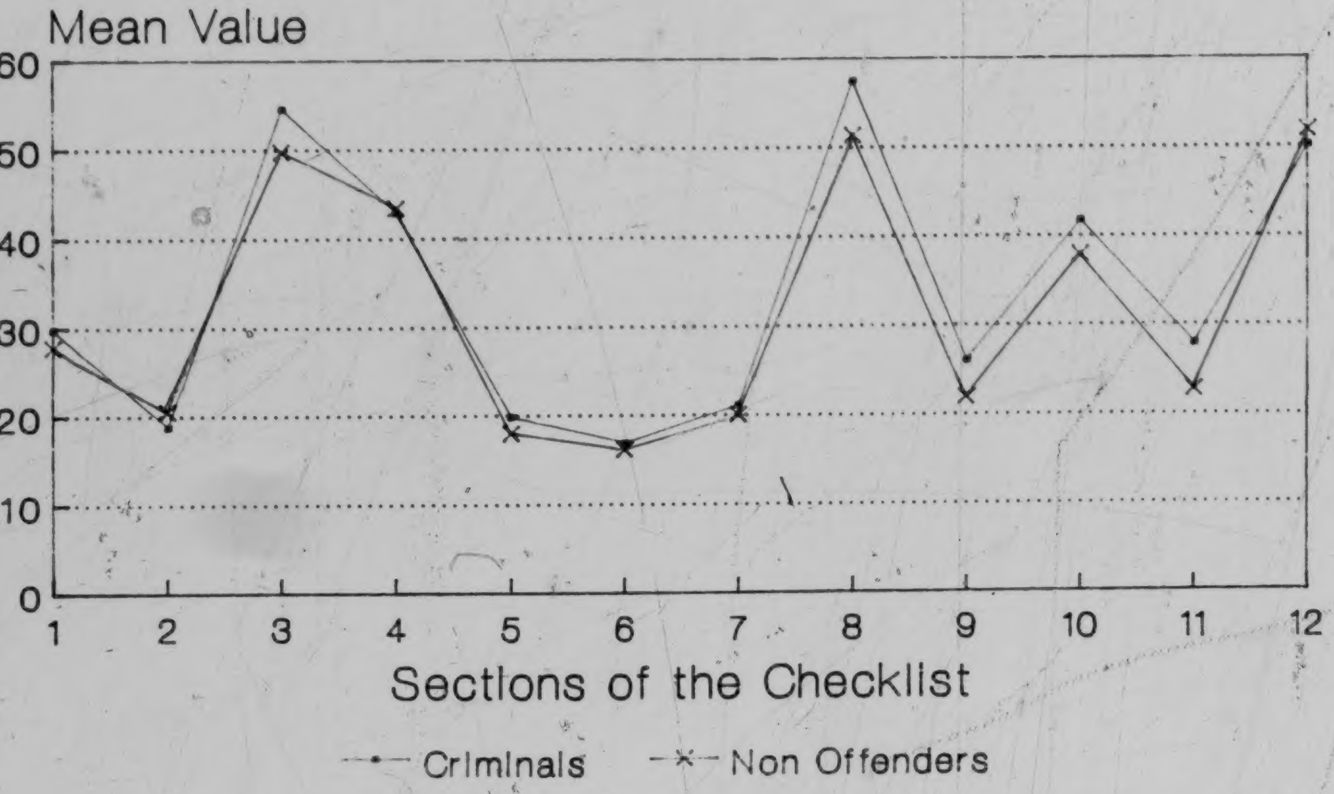

Table 23

Table of Means for Figure 3

Group	Sections of the Checklist 1	2	3	4	5	6
Criminals N = 148	29.80*	18.69	54.55*	42.86	19.74*	16.82*
Non Offenders N = 30	27.83	20.47*	49.73	43.40*	17.90	16.10

Group	Sections of the Checklist 7	8	9	10	11	12
Criminals N = 148	21.07*	57.42*	26.02*	41.70	27.78*	50.04
Non Offenders N = 30	19.97	51.30	21.87	37.83	22.63	51.77*

F-ratio = 3.26, Probability = .00

* = significantly higher response rates

compared to the previous profiles) by procedures collapsing the offender sample into a single group. Furthermore, extreme differences in the sample sizes of both groups may have influenced these results and require further investigation using equal sample sizes before more conclusive statements may be made. Nevertheless, these results clearly indicate higher frequencies of responses by the criminal offenders on various sections of the Checklist (often involving hostile acts of aggression) than the nonffenders and clearly supports the contention that criminally inclined individuals differ in reported sexual fantasies than do individuals not criminally-so inclined.

Results demonstrating the nature of the profile differences described above and presented in Figure 3 are exhibited in Table 24. These results demonstrate that criminals and nonoffenders differed in the centroids across groups, shapes of their respective profiles and treatment levels across each section of the checklist. Clinical evaluation of the profiles in Figure 3 demonstrates that criminals exhibit consistently higher levels of responding on all sections of the Checklist except for three (bondage, sexual aggression, and mutual sexual gratification) as indicated by the higher group frequency means. This indicates that individuals convicted of a criminal offence fantasize more frequently than nonoffenders. This result is inconsistent with the results demonstrated on Wilson's SFQ, which revealed lower rates of reported fantasizing by the offender group. As the degree of deviance is greater on the SFC than the SFQ, it seems reasonable to conclude that the SFC more adequately measures deviant fantasies than does the SFQ. Therefore, use of the SFC, rather than the SFQ, in future research studies involving criminal populations appears to be justified. Furthermore, this suggests that measurement devices which are nondescriptive and less offensive are relatively meaningless when used in studies investigating deviant populations. The nonoffenders' higher group frequency mean on the mutual sexual gratification scale and the offenders' higher group frequencies on sections descriptive of hostile acts (power and domination, anger and hatred, sadism, masochism and rejection and insecurity) appears consistent with this contention. However, the nonoffenders' higher response rate to fantasies, which were clearly descriptive of sexual aggression (section 4) is somewhat confusing and inconsistent with previous results (Furman, 1986). It may

Table 24

Multivariate Profile Analysis on Two Groups

Test	F-ratio	Probability
Equality of Response Means	3.26	.0000
Parallelism of Line Segments	3.21	.001
Equality of Treatment Levels	187.44	.0000

be speculated that the obviousness of these items and the offenders' perception of the nature of this study as an attempt to look at somewhat deviant fantasies, may have created a response bias inhibiting admission to sexually deviant thoughts. (Low response rates on Wilson's SFQ, but not on the sado-masochism section of the SFC appears to support this contention.) Nevertheless, this finding renders the need to investigate the degree of social desirability presented within each item and how perception of desirability influences response tendencies in completing this survey. Overall, however, the utility of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist for future use in studies investigating deviant fantasies has been twice demonstrated (both in this study and Furman's 1986 Masters Thesis) to be appropriate and justified.

Personality Research Form--Form E (Jackson, 1967)

The five samples were compared for differences on the 22 subscales of the Personality Research Form--Form E (PRF--Form E) using a Multivariate Analysis of Variance test. In order to determine in which direction significant differences between the groups lay, Analysis of Variance tests based on the Scheffe statistic were completed. Following comparisons of the four offender samples to the nonoffenders, the two groups of sexual offenders were collapsed into a single group to investigate whether sex offenders in general differed from other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders on personality measures. The final comparison involved collapsing the entire group of offenders into one group as a means to investigate whether criminals, as a whole, differed from nonoffenders on a measure of personality.

Results from the Multivariate Analysis of Variance test indicating group differences on each of the 22 subscales of the PRF--Form E are presented in Table 25.

Results from Table 25 indicate that differences between groups at the .05 level of significance were found on 11 of the 22 subscales. More specifically, the five groups differed on measures of:

1. Abasement (F = 3.14, p = 0.02);
2. Aggression (F = 2.57, p = 0.04);
3. Autonomy (F = 2.93, p = 0.02);
4. Change (F = 4.14, p = 0.00);
5. Dominance (F = 5.85, p = 0.00);
6. Exhibition (F = 2.71, p = 0.03);
7. Sentience (F = 2.41, p = 0.05);
8. Social Recognition (F = 2.46, p = 0.05);
9. Succorance (F = 7.06, p = 0.00);
10. Infrequency (F = 2.86, p = 0.025); and
11. Desirability (F = 5.18, p = 0.00).

Table 25

MANOVA test for the 5 Groups on the PRF--Form E

Subscale	F-Ratio	Probability	Significance
1 Abasement	3.14	0.02	*
2 Achievement	0.27	0.89	
3 Affiliation	2.05	0.09	
3 Aggression	2.57	0.04	*
5 Autonomy	2.93	0.02	*
6 Change	4.14	0.00	*
7 Cognitive Structure	2.01	0.10	
8 Dependence	2.13	0.08	
9 Dominance	5.85	0.00	*
10 Endurance	0.08	0.99	
11 Exhibition	2.71	0.03	*
12 Harmavoidance	1.60	0.18	
13 Impulsivity	2.26	0.06	
14 Nurturance	1.69	0.16	
15 Order	2.16	0.08	
16 Play	1.13	0.35	
17 Sentience	2.41	0.05	*
18 Social Recognition	2.46	0.05	*
19 Succorance	7.06	0.00	*
20 Understanding	1.82	0.13	
21 Infrequency	2.86	0.03	*
22 Desirability	5.18	0.00	*

Although significant differences between the five groups were found on the subscales described above, the direction of these differences (i.e. who had more frequent responses) were demonstrated on only three of these eleven subscales including: 1) Dominance, 2) Succorance and, 3) Social Desirability.

On the subscale measuring Dominance, the sample of nonoffenders differed significantly from all four groups of offenders (Scheffe = 3.12), with the largest difference exhibited to the sample of sex offenders--minor (observed difference = 3.94, required difference = 3.23), followed by the sex offenders--adult (observed difference = 3.75, required difference = 3.07), followed by the other offenders (observed difference = 3.64, required difference = 2.63) and finally the murderers (observed difference = 3.31, required difference = 3.16). Surprisingly, the nonoffenders reported higher levels of dominance than the four groups of offenders. These results suggest that the sample of nonoffenders reported harboring traits, which include controlling, domineering, assertive, powerful and leadership qualities (Jackson, 1984) to a greater extent than did the four types of offenders.

On the subscale measuring succorance, both groups of sex offenders differed (Scheffe = 3.12) from the "other" offenders (sex offenders--adult to "other" offenders: observed difference = 3.03, required difference = 2.07; and sex offenders--minor to "other" offender: observed difference = 2.74, required difference = 2.21), indicating greater needs of dependency, support, affection, insecurity, and frequently requiring reassurance and protection from others.

On the subscale measuring an individual's tendency to endorse items judged as socially desirable or tendency to present a favourable picture of oneself, the sample of nonoffenders differed from both groups of sex offenders and "other" offenders, but not with the sample of murderers. Differences between the nonoffenders and "other" offenders was highest (Scheffe = 3.12, observed difference = 2.57, required difference = 1.86), followed by the sex offenders--minor (observed difference = 2.50, required difference = 2.28), and then the sex offenders--adult (observed difference = 2.28, required difference = 2.17). These results suggest that the nonoffenders were more likely to provide "acceptable" or socially desirable responses than were the offenders, which may be a response tendency across all four questionnaires. However, further research would be required to more conclusively delineate response styles as consistent or inconsistent across multiple measurement instrument research. In summary, group differences were exhibited between the five groups on eleven scales of the PRF--Form E, with the direction of these differences established on three of the eleven subscales. It is important to note that use of the conservative Scheffe statistic and limitations in sample size likely diminished the ability to determine direction in group differences.

Therefore, it is likely that future research using larger sample sizes will yield more conclusive results.

In an attempt to reduce the influence of sample size as well as to investigate whether various types of sex offenders differed from other offenders or nonoffenders on the PRF--Form E, both groups of sex offenders were collapsed into a single group for the purpose of a more general comparison. The MANOVA results presented in Table 26 indicate only the subscales found to exhibit significant differences between groups, within the four group comparison condition.

Table 26

MANOVA on 4 Groups

Subscale	F-Ratio	Probability	Significance
1 Absement	4.20	.01	*
4 Aggression	2.98	.03	*
5 Autonomy	3.73	.01	*
6 Change	3.22	.02	*
9 Dominance	7.83	.00	*
11 Exhibition	3.59	.02	*
*13 Impulsivity	3.02	.03	*
*15 Order	2.88	.04	*
17 Sentience	3.24	.02	*
18 Social Recognition	3.03	.03	*
19 Succorance	9.42	.00	*
21 Infrequency	3.82	.01	*
22 Desirability	6.92	.00	*

Results from Table 26 indicate that differences at the .05 level of significance were found on 13 of the 22 subscales. Collapsing the two groups of sex offenders into a single group served to increase the differences observed between the original differences exhibited when comparisons were made between the original five groups. For example, on subscale 1, the F-ratio = 3.14 for the five groups whereas the F-ratio = 4.20 for the four groups and the probabilities decreased; p = .02 for five groups and p = .01, respectively. Thus, significant differences for the 11 subscales demonstrated in Table 25 were also found when MANOVA procedures were used to compare the collapsed sex offender group to the other three groups. Results further indicated significant differences on two more subscales, including: 1) Impulsivity (F = 3.02, p = .03); and 2) Order (F = 2.88, p = .04).

A second difference exhibited following collapsing of the sex offender group was that the direction of the differences could be determined on 9 of the 13 subscales, whereas the ANOVA procedures conducted upon the total five group conditions found directional differences for only 3 out of the 11 subscales including: 1) Dominance, 2) Succorance, and 3) Desirability, as previously discussed. As the direction of group differences remained unchanged between the five group and four group comparison conditions on these subscales, further delineation of these differences were not required. .

However, on subscale 1 (Abasement), which measures an individual's submissiveness or tendency to harbour self-blame, self-deprecatory traits and willingness to accept a subordinate position (Jackson, 1984), the sex offenders reported possession of these traits to a significantly greater degree than the nonoffenders (Scheffe = 2.82; observed difference = 2.04, required difference = 1.68). Significant differences between the other groups of offenders were not found.

On subscale 5 (Autonomy), which measures an individual's independence, rebelliousness and resistance to externally imposed restraints (Jackson, 1984), the sample of "other" offenders reported significantly higher levels of autonomy than did the sex offenders (Scheffe = 2.82; observed difference = 1.66, required difference = 1.54). Further differences in direction were nonsignificant across the remaining group comparisons.

On subscale 11 (Exhibition), which measures an individual's desire to be the center of attention (Jackson, 1984), the sample of nonoffenders exhibited significantly higher levels of this trait as compared to the three groups of offenders (Scheffe = 2.82), with differences greatest between the nonoffenders and the: sex offenders (observed difference = 3.84, required difference = 2.44), followed by the "other" offenders (observed difference = 3.64, required difference = 2.38), and finally, the sample of murderers (observed difference = 3.31, required difference = 2.86).

On subscale 13 (Impulsivity), which measures the ability to inhibit expression of emotion and behaviour (Jackson, 1984), the sample of "other" offenders exhibited significantly higher response rates than the murderers (Scheffe = 2.82, observed difference = 2.30, required difference = 2.18), but further directional differences were not found.

On subscale 15 (Order), which measures one's concern with organizing personal effects in a neat and organized manner (Jackson, 1984), the sample of sex offenders exhibited significantly higher response rates than the nonoffenders (Scheffe = 2.82, observed difference = 2.65, required difference = 2.58), but further directional differences were not found.

And finally, on subscale 17 (Sentience), which measures sensitivity to many forms of sensory experience and inclinations towards hedonistic or aesthetic views in life (Jackson, 1984), the nonoffenders exhibited significantly higher response rates than the "other" offenders (Scheffe = 2.82, observed difference = 1.89, required difference =

1.80). However, further differences in direction between the remaining groups were not revealed.

The final analyses computed upon the PRF--Form E involved comparing the nonoffenders with the entire sample of criminal offenders collapsed into a single group. The purpose for conducting this analysis was to determine whether criminals, in general, differed from noncriminals on the 22 subscales. Significant group differences determined by the MANOVA analyses are presented in Table 27.

Table 27

MANOVA on Criminals versus Noncriminals on PRF--Form E

Subscale	F-Ratio	Probability	Significance
1 Abasement	8.86	.00	*
3 Affiliation	6.63	.01	*
9 Dominance	23.38	.00	*
11 Exhibition	10.77	.00	*
15 Order	6.97	.01	*
17 Sentience	8.66	.00	*
18 Social Recognition	9.31	.01	*
22 Desirability	20.16	.00	*

B

These results are similar to the results found when comparing both the five groups and four groups of the sample. However, the exhibited increases in F-ratios and decreased probabilities may reflect a sample size effect or a criminality effect, which would suggest homogeneity within the offender sample. If these differences represent a sample size effect, it seems likely that increases in the sample size of each specific offender category would produce more conclusive and specific results. If, however, criminality is the influential factor, increases in sample size of each type of offender would yield little difference to the results found in this study. Although more conclusive statements may not be presently determined, future research using larger samples of each offender type may help to resolve this issue. Finally, collapsing the sample into two groups yielded clarity in determining the direction of the significant differences (Scheffe = 1.97) found between these groups. In each comparison yielding significant group differences, direction was determined as a result of a two group only condition as exhibited in Table 28.

Results from Table 28 indicate that criminals exhibited higher scores than the nonoffenders on the following subscales:

1. Abasement (observed difference = 1.56, required difference = 1.04);
2. Order (observed difference = 2.12, required difference = 1.59); and
3. Social Desirability (observed difference = 2.40, required difference = 1.06).

Table 28

Estimated Means on PRF Subscales

Found to be Significant Between Two Groups

Group	Subscale	Estimated Mean
Criminals	Abasement	7.86
Nonoffenders	Abasement	6.30
Criminals	Affiliation	8.22
Nonoffenders	Affiliation	9.97
Criminals	Dominance	7.58
Nonoffenders	Dominance	11.23
Criminals	Exhibition	6.71
Nonoffenders	Exhibition	9.07
Criminals	Order	9.16
Nonoffenders	Order	7.03
Criminals	Sentience	7.71
Nonoffenders	Sentience	9.40
Criminals	Social Recognition	7.27
Nonoffenders	Social Recognition	8.83
Criminals	Social Desirability	12.00
Nonoffenders	Social Desirability	9.60

Thus, the entire sample of criminal offenders were more likely to be submissive, deliberate or methodical and inclined to describe themselves in a favourable manner.

In contrast, the nonoffenders exhibited higher response rates than the criminals on the following subscales:

1. Affiliation (observed difference = 1.75, required difference = 1.34);
2. Dominance (observed difference = 3.65, required difference = 1.49);
3. Exhibition (observed difference = 2.35, required difference = 1.41);
4. Sentience (observed difference = 1.69, required difference = 1.13); and
5. Social Recognition (observed difference = 1.56, required difference = 1.21).

These results suggest that individuals who have not committed a criminal offence are more sociable, domineering, exhibitionistic, hedonistic and more concerned about approval from others, than are individuals who have been convicted of a criminal offence.

In summary, the comparisons investigated upon the PRF--Form E suggests that specific differences between various types of criminal offenders, various types of sexual offenders and/or nonoffenders exist. Manipulation of the sample size from five to four to two groups revealed consistent and specific group differences, and in which direction these differences lay. These results suggest that future research utilizing larger sample sizes for each category of offenders and nonoffenders would provide revealing results concerning the generalizability of these findings and whether or not criminality, in itself, yields specific differences in the "needs structure" of one's personality, as assessed by Jackson's PRF--Form E.

Multivariate Profile Analyses on the Personality Research Form--Form E conducted on the five groups sampled revealed significant differences at equal to or less than the .001 level of significance (see Figures 4a and 4b). Due to the large number of variables, analysis was divided into comparing the first 11 subscale simultaneous and then simultaneously comparing the remaining 11 subscales. Between group differences were found on both the first 11 subscales (F-ratio = 1.80, p = .0001) and the last 11 subscales (F-ratio = 3.12, p = .0000). On the first 11 subscales, differences in the parallelism of line segments (F = 1.87, p = .001) and treatment level effects (F = 28.88, p = .0000) were obtained, but equal mean effects were not significant (F = 1.90, p = .11). Thus, although differences in the shape of profiles and treatment of each variable were exhibited, overall mean differences in response rates were not found.

In contrast, the results for the remaining 11 subscales exhibited overall profile differences in parallelism (F = 2.96, p = .0000), treatment levels (F = 162.41, p = .001) and equal means effects (F = 4.86, p = .0001). In summary, these results suggest that the various groups sampled differed in overall profiles on the PRF--Form E, with specific differences delineated in shape, treatment of each variable and overall mean responses (except for the first 11 subscales), indicating specific differences in self-reported personality characteristics.

Results from Figures 4a and 4b and Table 29 reveal the presence of significant profile differences between groups on the 22 subscales of the PRF--Form E. This suggests that various types of offenders differ from each other as well as from nonoffenders in self-reported personality traits. However, the direction of these differences were not statistically determined as limitations in sample size and the large number of variables (22 subscales) rendered such a comparison to be invalid. Despite small sample size, the current finding of significant profile differences between groups on the PRF--Form E provides justification for future research investigating the diagnostic and/or predictive utility of this instrument for use in criminal and noncriminal populations.

Figure 4a
Profile Analysis of Five Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 1 to 11)

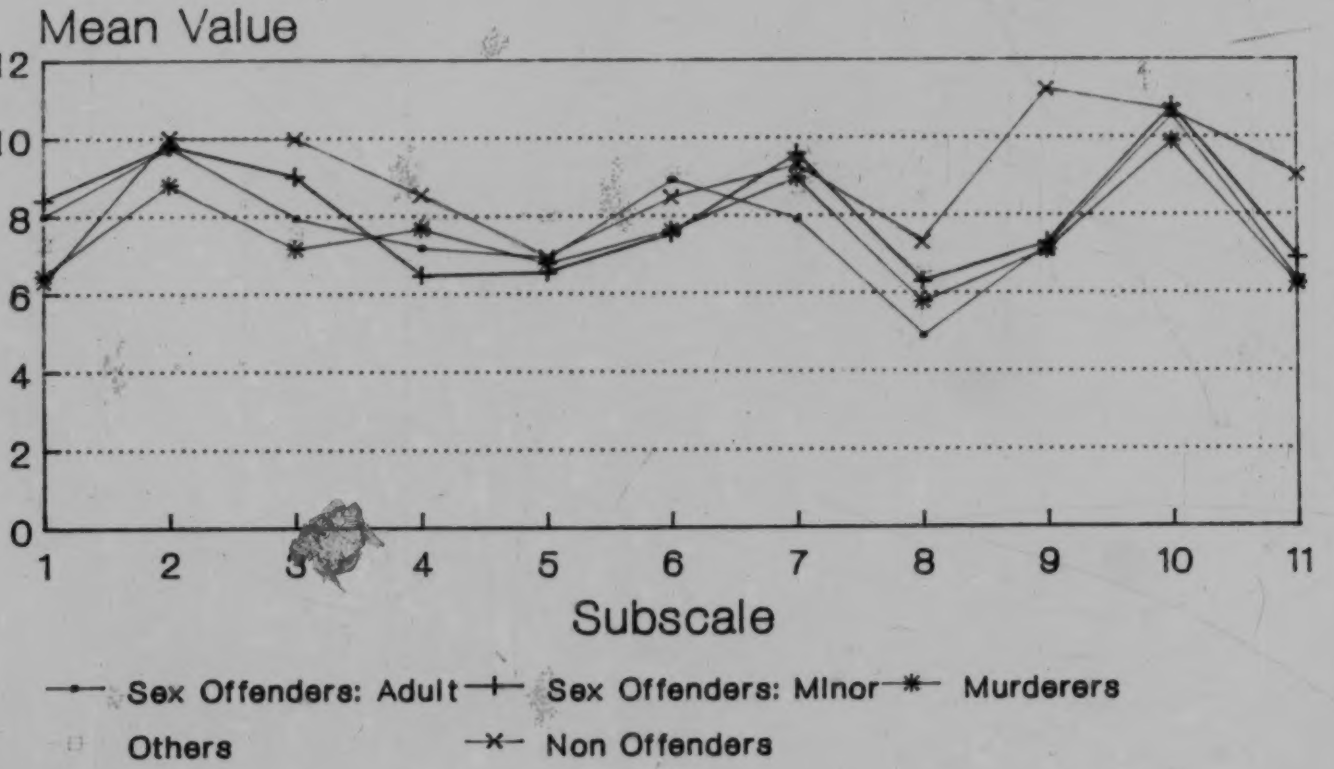

Figure 4b
Profile Analysis of Five Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 12 to 22)

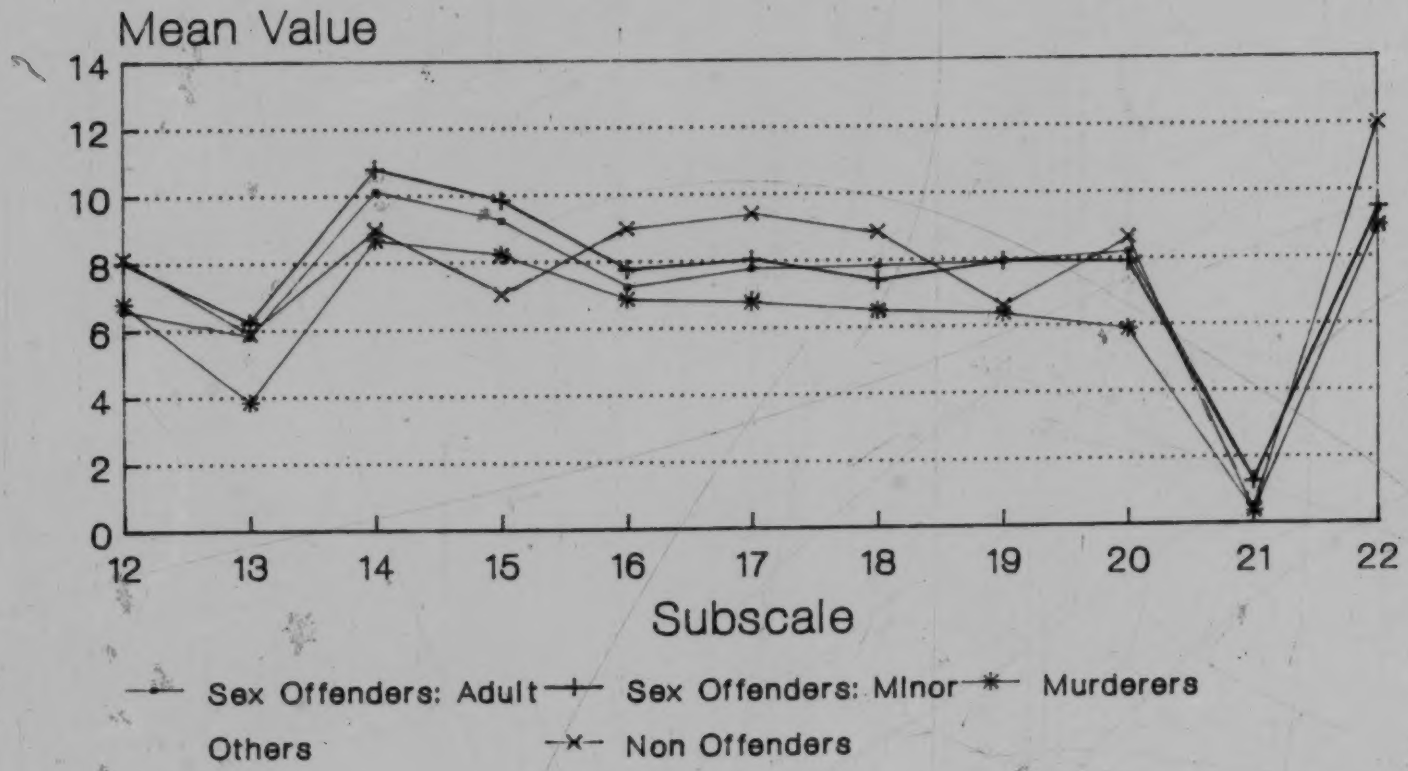

Table 29

Group Means of Five Groups on PRF--Form E

Subscale 1 to 11

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
Group						
1	8.0	9.77	7.93	7.17	6.9	8.93
2	8.4	9.79	9.00	6.46	6.54	7.54
3	6.45	8.79	7.14	7.66	6.76	7.62
4	7.26	9.74	7.54	7.90	8.00	9.09
5	6.30	10.01	9.97	8.53	6.93	8.47

Scale	7	8	9	10	11
Group					
1	7.9	4.9	7.23	10.57	6.3
2	9.58	6.29	7.29	10.79	6.88
3	8.97	5.76	7.10	9.89	6.21
4	8.71	6.49	7.12	10.08	6.25
5	9.30	7.30	11.23	10.67	9.01

First 11 Subscales
Scales 1-11

MANOVA F = 1.80 p = .0001 on PRF--Form E

Test for parallelism = F = 1.87 p = .001
equal mean effects = F = 1.90 p = .11
treatment effects = F = 28.88 p = .0000

Table 29 (Continued)

Group Means of Five Groups on PRF--Form E

Subscale 12 to 22

Scale	12	13	14	15	16	17
Group						
1	6.57	5.80	10.13	9.23	7.23	7.77
2	8.00	6.21	10.79	9.83	7.75	8.04
3	6.79	3.83	8.66	8.21	6.86	6.76
4	6.00	6.17	9.03	8.17	7.79	7.05
5	8.13	5.88	8.97	7.03	8.97	9.40

Scale	18	19	20	21	22
Group					
1	7.83	7.93	8.20	1.30	9.40
2	7.38	7.92	7.88	1.25	9.50
3	6.48	6.35	5.86	0.35	8.93
4	6.43	4.86	7.40	0.71	8.85
5	8.83	6.58	8.63	0.40	12.00

Scales 12-22

MANOVA F = 3.12 p = .0000

parallelism = F = 2.96 p = .0000
equal means F = 4.86 p = .0001
treatment effects F = 162.41 p = .0000

Despite an inability to determine directionality of the profile differences exhibited on the PRF--Form E, during attempts to clinically evaluate the nature of these differences, observed similarities in response patterns for both groups of sex offenders became apparent. In light of this observation and the focus upon sex offenders within this study, further analyses upon the PRF--Form E were employed to determine whether sex offenders as a single group differed from the "other" offenders, murderers and nonoffenders in reported personality characteristics. These results are presented in Figures 5a and 5b and Table 30.

The Multivariate Profile Analysis completed upon the collapsed group of sex offenders versus the other three groups revealed consistent differences between groups (F = 1.86, p = .003). Although the probability of equal mean effects (F = 2.47, p = .06) similarly did not reach significance (as exhibited in the five group comparison) on the first 11 subscales, significant differences in parallelism of the line segments (F = 1.93, p = .003) and treatment level effects (F = 28.66, p = .000) were obtained. Furthermore, significant differences between groups were exhibited on the remaining 11 subscales of the PRF--Form E profiles in their mean responses (F = 6.38, p = .000) parallelism of line segments (F = 387, p = .000) and treatment level effects (F = 162.85, p = .000). Thus, it may be concluded that sex offenders differ from murderers, "other" offenders, and nonoffenders in profile depictions of

Figure 5a
Profile Analysis of Four Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 1 to 11)

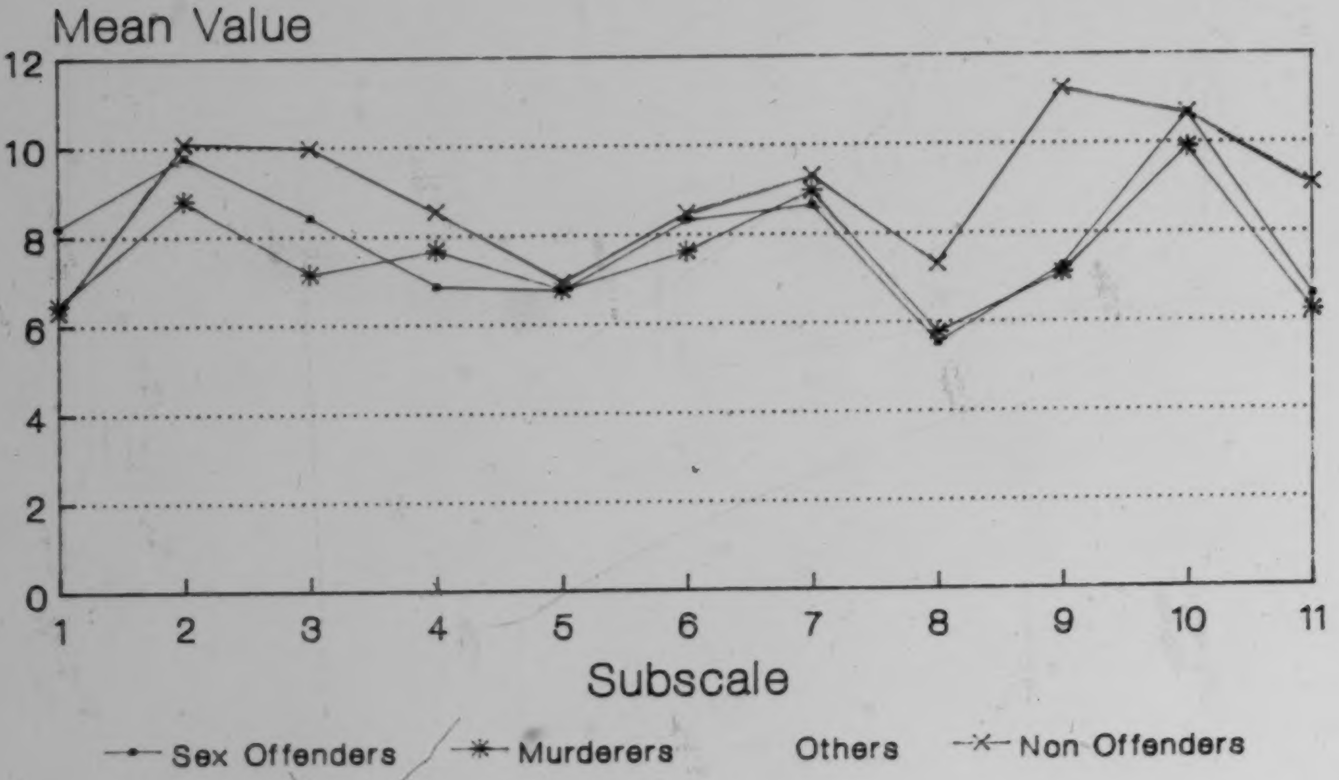

Figure 5b
Profile Analysis of Four Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 12 to 22)

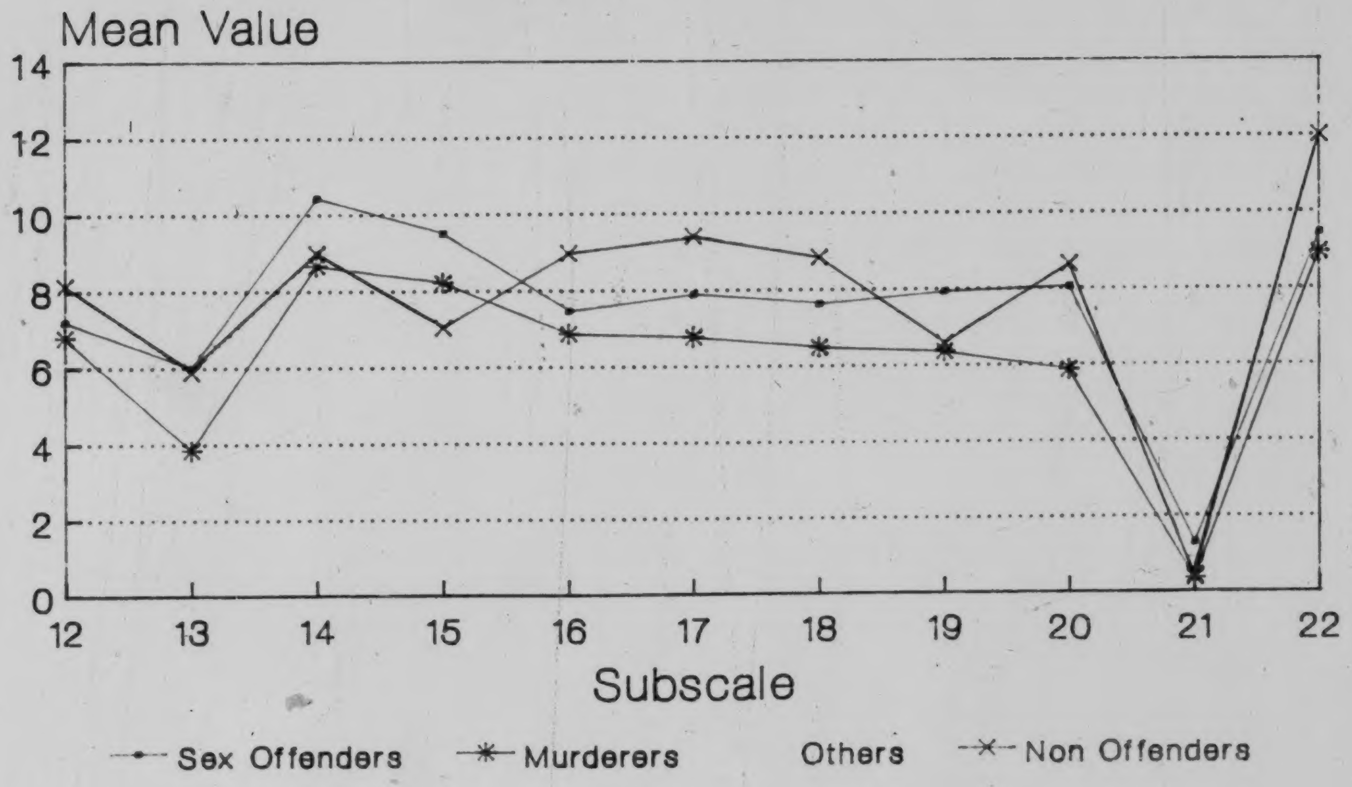

Table 30

Group Means of Four Groups on PRF--Form E

Group	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	8.19	9.78	8.41	6.85	6.74	8.32
2	6.45	8.79	7.14	7.66	6.76	7.62
3	7.26	9.74	7.54	7.91	8.00	9.10
4	6.30	10.07	9.97	8.53	6.93	8.47

Group	7	8	9	10	11
1	8.65	5.52	7.26	10.67	6.56
2	8.97	5.76	7.10	9.90	6.21
3	8.71	6.49	7.12	10.08	6.25
4	9.30	7.30	11.23	10.67	9.07

F = 1.86 p = .003
test of parallelism = F = 1.93 p = .003
equal means = F = 2.47 p = .06
treatment level effects = F = 28.66 p = .000

Group	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	7.20	5.98	10.43	9.50	7.46	7.89
2	6.79	3.83	8.66	8.21	6.86	6.76
3	6.00	6.17	9.03	8.17	7.79	7.05
4	8.13	5.87	8.97	7.03	8.97	9.40

Table 30 (Continued)

Group Means PRF on Four Groups

Group	18	19	20	21	22
1	7.63	7.93	8.06	1.28	9.44
2	6.48	6.35	5.86	0.345	8.93
3	6.43	4.86	7.40	0.708	8.85
4	8.83	6.57	8.63	0.400	12.00

F = 4.12 p = .000
parallelism = F = 3.87 p = .000
equal means = F = 6.38 p = .000
treatment effects = F = 162.85 p = .000

the PRF--Form E. This finding suggests the presence of characteristic personality traits and further investigation of delineative profiles is justified and necessary to gain greater understanding of the personality dynamics held by various types of individuals. As a means to initially investigate potential similarities and differences between groups, the current sample was collapsed into two groups including, one group composed of all of the offenders and a second group composed of the nonoffenders. The results of this investigation are presented in Figures 6a and 6b and Table 31.

The Multivariate Profile Analysis on the PRF--Form E for the sample of collapsed criminal offenders versus the

Figure 6a
Profile Analysis of Two Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 1 to 11)

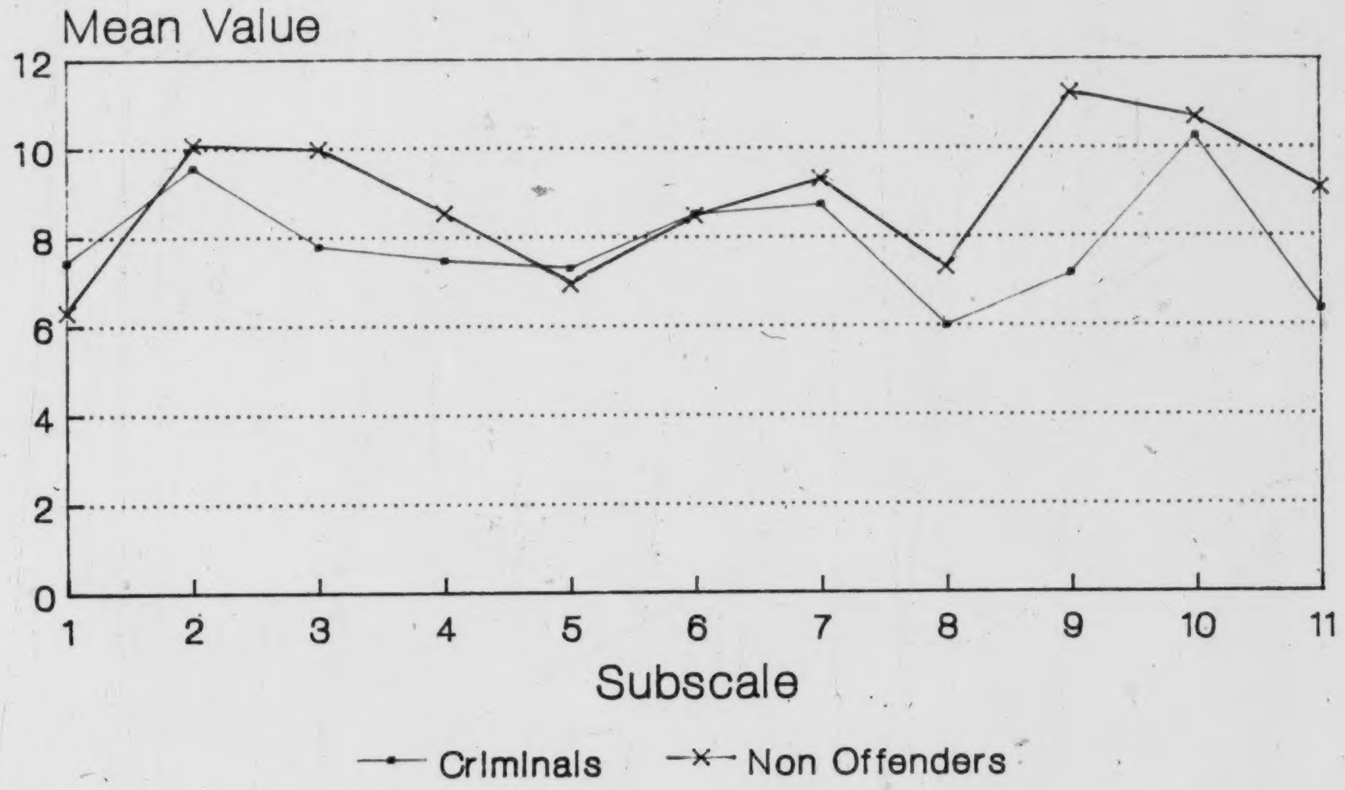

Figure 6b
Profile Analysis of Two Groups
on PRF - Form E (Scales 12 to 22)

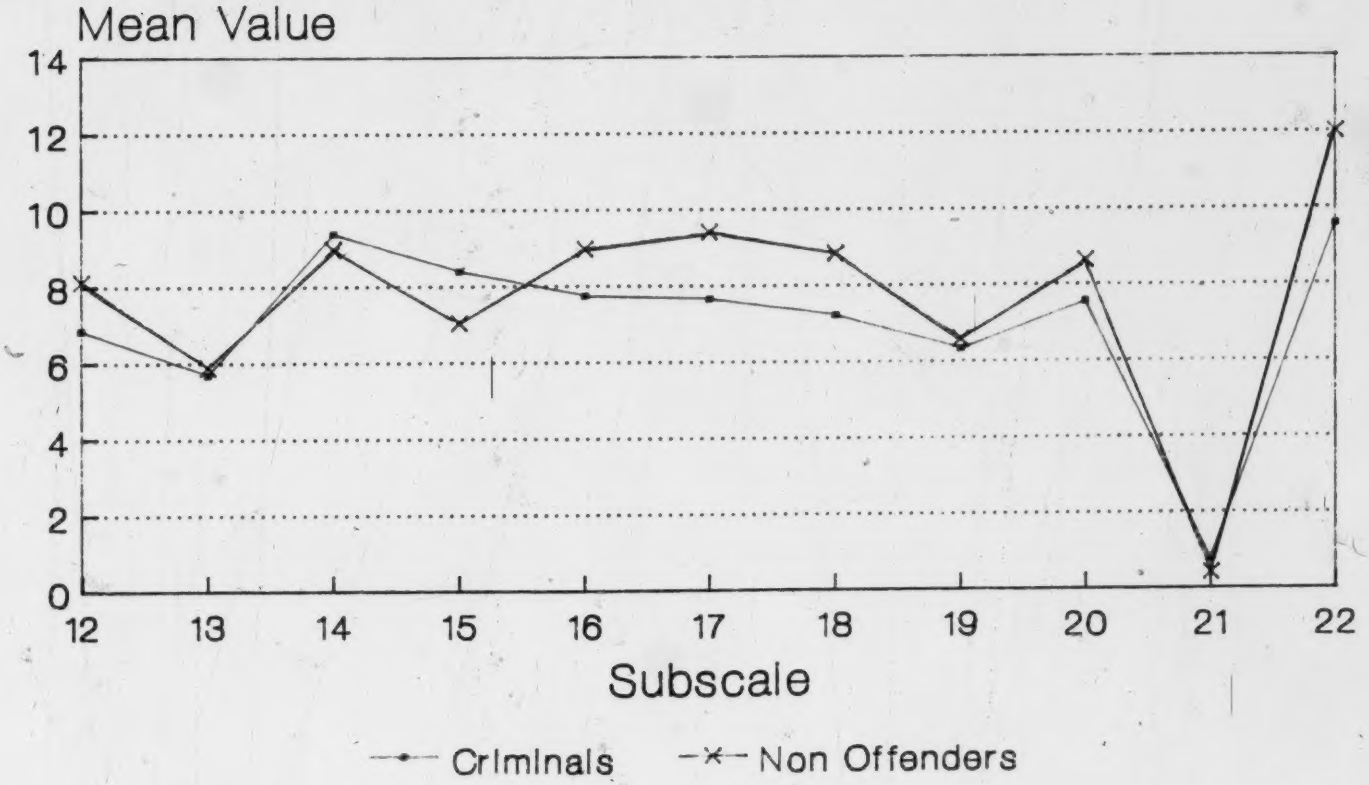

Table 31

Multivariate Profile Analysis of Two Groups

on PRF--Form E

Group	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	7.44	9.57	7.78	7.47	7.30	8.52
2	6.30	10.07	9.97	8.53	6.93	8.47

Group	7	8	9	10	11
1	8.74	5.99	7.17	10.26	6.35
2	9.30	7.30	11.23	10.67	9.07

F = 3.46 p = .000
parallelism = F = 3.78 p = .000
equal means = F = 6.09 p = .02
treatment level = F = 28.97 p = .000

Group	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	8.13	5.87	8.97	7.03	8.97	9.40
2	6.85	5.68	9.38	8.39	7.74	7.65

Group 1 = Criminals
Group 2 - Nonoffenders

Table 31 (Continued)

Multivariate Profile Analysis of Two Groups

on PRF--Form E

Group	18	19	20	21	22
1	8.83	6.57	8.63	0.400	12.00
2	7.21	6.32	7.56	0.77	9.57

F = 7.31 p = .000
parallelism = F = 7.92 p = .000
equal means = F = 5.63 p = .02
treatment effects = F = 164.72 p = .000

nonoffenders revealed significant differences between groups on both the first 11 subscales (F = 3.46, p = .00) and the final 11 subscales (F = 7.31, p = .00) of the PRF--Form E. Differences on the first 11 subscales were significant with respect to parallelism of the line segments (F = 3.78, p = .00), equal means effects (F = 6.09, p = .02) and treatment levels across variables (F = 28.97, p = .00). Significant differences in profiles were found for the remaining 11 subscales in parallelism (F = 7.92, p = .00), equal mean effects (F = 5.63, p = .02) and treatment levels across variables (F = 164.72, p = .00). These results suggest that criminals differ from nonoffenders in personality characteristics measured by the PRF--Form E.

Review of these results demonstrates that the criminals exhibited higher response rates than the nonoffenders to the subscales including:

1. Abasement,
2. Harmavoidance,
3. Play,
4. Social Recognition,
5. Understanding, and
6. Desirability.

Lower response rates than the nonoffenders, were observed on subscales measuring:

1. Affiliation,
2. Aggression,
3. Defendence,
4. Dominance,
5. Exhibition, and
6. Order.

Similar response rates for both groups were exhibited on subscales measuring:

(1) Achievement,

(2) Autonomy,

(3) Change,

(4) Cognitive Structure,

(5) Endurance,

(6) Impulsivity,

(7) Nurturance,
(8) Succorance, and
(9) Infrequency.

Although these differences were determined subjectively rather than objectively, it appears likely that future research would yield significant findings. It is sufficient for the purposes of this study to conclude that differences in personality characteristics were observed to be measurable by the PRF--Form E. Therefore, future research investigating differences in personality of various criminals using larger sample sizes appears to be both justified and warranted.

Correlations Between the SFC, SFQ, and PRF--Form E

In an attempt to investigate whether the number of one's reported sexual fantasies are related to one's personality characteristics, correlational tests, which allow comparisons between relative rankings of individuals on two or more different measures, were completed. Thus, each subject's responses on the SFC were compared to their responses on the SFQ and PRF--Form E, to establish the presence of possible relationships across measures. Establishment of such a relationship is important for predictive purposes, which is often the final task when evaluating a criminal offender's readiness for release.

Thus, inclusion of this analysis in this research project appeared to be a justified and necessary addition to the previously discussed research findings.

Review of the Table 32 demonstrates the correlations between the sections of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist to subscales on the Personality Research Form--Form E and the factors underlying the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire at both the .01 and .001 levels of significance.

Results from this table demonstrate that Section 1 of the Checklist (Power and Domination), which includes items descriptive of power and control over another person, is positively related to all four factors underlying the SFQ at the .001 level of significance. This finding suggests that Power and Domination fantasies include both positive (Exploratory and Intimacy) and negative (Impersonal and Sadomasochistic) elements to this type of activity. Furthermore, Power and Domination fantasies were found to be positively correlated, at the .001 level of significance, to the PRF--Form E's subscale measuring impulsivity, which measures the ability to inhibit responses and tendency to express emotions in a volatile manner. Positive correlations to the PRF--Form E subscales at the .01 level of significance were demonstrated between Section 1 of the Checklist and the PRF subscales, including:

1. Aggression, which measures willingness to hurt others, aggressiveness, and retaliative impulses;
2. Defendence, which measures ability to accept real or imagined criticism or threats; and
3. Sentience, which measures sensitivity in sensory perceptions and hedonistic or aesthetic inclinations.

A negative correlation between Power and Dominance fantasies and tendency to describe oneself in a favourable manner (Social Desirability subscale) was exhibited at the .01 level of significance, suggesting that individuals who report sexual fantasies of this type are likely to disregard or not care how others perceive them. The described relationship between Section 1 of the SFC and subscales of the SFQ and PRF--Form E appears to demonstrate consistency with respect to the nature of these variables and provides support for literary contentions that individuals who express dominating behaviours over others are inclined to be impulsive, defensive, aggressive, and hedonistic.

Section 2 (Bondage) of the SFC also exhibited positive correlations ($p = .001$) to all four factors underlying the SFQ, again suggesting the presence of both positive and negative themes within the item content of this measure. It is important to note the relatively high correlation to the sadomasochism factor of the SFQ ($r = .61$), which suggests the presence of self-destructive and other destructive tendencies within sexual fantasies involving bondage. All items within this section are descriptive of actions rendering another person or the self into a physically helpless position. The only relationship observed to the subscales on the PRF--Form E was between Bondage and Dominance ($r = .23$, $\alpha = .01$), which measures the individual's attempt to control the environment and/or other persons within their environment. These results suggest that individuals reporting high levels of sexual fantasies descriptive of bondage will likely harbour personal characteristics that may be described as controlling, domineering, and forceful in nature.

Section 3 of the Checklist (Seduction and Courtship) was found to be positively correlated at the .001 level of significance with three (Exploratory, Intimate, and Impersonal) factors on the SFQ. Somewhat surprisingly, this section was also found to be positively correlated at the .01 level of significance to the fourth factor of the SFQ, which involves sadomasochistic themes. This finding indicates that individuals who have high rates of seduction and courtship fantasies will have high rates of fantasies delineated by the four factors, including sadomasochistic fantasies, of the SFQ. Secticn 3 was found to be negatively correlated to one subscale on the PRF--Form E at the .001

level of significance. More specifically, individuals with high scores on the Seduction and Courtship fantasies of the SFC tended to exhibit low scores in Harmavoidance, which measures the individual's inclination to maximize personal safety and avoidance of risk-taking behaviours which may result in bodily harm. It thus appears likely that individuals who engage in sexual fantasies of seduction and courtship are more likely to exhibit cautious, vigilant and pain-avoidant personal characteristics.

Section 4 (Sexual Aggression) of the SFC exhibited moderately high correlations to all four factors of the SFQ (α = .001 for all four factors) indicating that high levels of responding to this section of the Checklist will yield high response levels to all items contained within the SFQ. It is again interesting to note that sexually aggressive fantasies appear to have positive relations to both negative (Impersonal and Sadomasochistic) and positive (Exploratory and Intimate) fantasies measured by the SFQ. Positive correlations to the PRF--Form E at the .001 level of significance, were found on the subscales measuring Defendence (r = .30) and Impulsivity (r = .35). A negative correlation to the subscale measuring Harmavoidance (r = .25) was also found at the .001 level of significance. These results suggest that individuals displaying high responses on sexually aggressive fantasies will exhibit higher scores on personality traits reflecting impulsivity, defensiveness, and tendencies to minimize risk-taking behaviours.

Section 4 of the Checklist exhibited positive correlations at the .01 level of significance with the following subscales of the PRF--Form E including: 1) Aggression (r = .22); Autonomy (r = .21); Play (r = .22); and Sentience (r = .22) and negative correlations (at the .01 level) with: 1) Abasement (r = -.20) and 2) Order (r = -.22). Thus, individuals with high scores on sexual fantasies involving sexual aggression will display moderately high scores on personality items measuring hostility, independence, carefreeness, and sensory perceptiveness and low scores on items measuring humility and organization of personal effects and surroundings.

Section 5 (Anger and Hatred) of the Checklist was found to exhibit low positive correlations to the: 1) Exploratory (r = .20, α = .01); 2) Impersonal (r = .20 α = .01); and 3) Sadomasochistic (r = .20, α = .01) factors of the SFQ. Correlations to the subscales on the PRF--Form E were negative with subscales measuring: 1) Desirability (r = -.26, α = .00); 2) Understanding (r = -.23, α = .01); and 3) Endurance (r = -.22, α = .01). Therefore, individuals who exhibited high levels of responding on sexual fantasies measuring a person's contempt and dislike for another with elements of physical and/or verbal violence involved, did not demonstrate tendencies to present themselves in a favourable manner, are not inquiring or analytical and are less persistent when faced with difficulties in the workplace.

Results from Table 32 reveal that Section 6 (Sadism) of the SFC was most strongly correlated to the sadomasochistic factor of the SFQ ($r = .46$, $\alpha = .00$), which is congruent with what one might expect. Moderate positive correlations were further exhibited to the Exploratory ($r = .38$; $\alpha = .001$) and Impersonal ($r = .38$, $\alpha = .00$) factors as well. The Sadism section failed to correlate positively with any of the subscales on the PRF--Form E, however, a significant negative correlation to the Endurance subscale ($r = -.20$, $\alpha = .01$) was exhibited. Thus, individuals who exhibited high response rates to sadistic sexual fantasies are less likely to persevere in the workplace or exhibit patience and stability when faced with a stressful situation.

The Masochism scale (Section 7) of the Checklist exhibited positive correlations to all four fantasy factors on the SFQ. As expected, it correlated most highly to the sadomasochistic factor ($r = .65$, $\alpha = .00$) followed by the Impersonal ($r = .58$, $\alpha = .00$), Exploratory ($r = .52$, $\alpha = .00$) and the Intimate ($r = .36$, $\alpha = .00$) factors. Positive correlations to the PRF--Form E subscales, including: Sentience (r = .25, α = .00) and Impulsivity (r = .21, α = .01) were displayed. Thus, individuals who had high response levels to masochistic sexual fantasies, tended to exhibit high item endorsements on personality scales measuring: 1) sensitivity to sensory stimuli and hedonistic or aesthetic views on life, and 2) tendencies to act without deliberation and inclinations toward volatile expressions of emotion.

Results from Table 32 demonstrate that Section 8 (Love, Friendship, and Intimacy) of the Checklist correlates in a positive manner to the Intimacy (r = .32, α = .00), Exploratory (r = .23, α = .01) and Impersonal (r = .20, α = .01) factors of the SFQ. Moderate positive correlations to the Endurance (r = .25, α = .01) and Nurturance (r = .21, α = .01) subscales of the PRF--Form E were found, and negative correlations with the Harmavoidance (r = -.24, α = .01) and Infrequency (r = 0.20, α = .01) subscales were displayed. Thus, individuals with high response rates to sexual fantasies measuring constructs including love, friendship, and intimacy, exhibited high response rates to personality scales measuring benevolence and caring for others and perseverance and stamina in work habits when under stress. Low scores on scales measuring carelessness or noncompliance in response style suggests diligence in completing any presented task. However, despite this diligence, such individuals are more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviours that may be described as exciting.

It would be interesting for future research to investigate whether individuals involved in committed relationships differ from individuals wary of such commitments in reported sexual fantasies and personality characteristics. Perhaps such an investigation would shed light upon "marriage as a disintegrating institution" which has been a prevalent debate and social concern throughout the '80s.

Section 9 (Spiritual Worship) positively correlated with all four factors of the SFQ at the .001 level of significance. A moderate positive correlation ($r = .24$, $\alpha = .01$) to the Impulsivity subscale of the PRF--Form E was shown and a strong negative correlation ($r = -.32$, $\alpha = .00$) was exhibited to Desirability. Thus, individuals evidencing high response rates to sexual fantasies reflecting obsessive preoccupation and worship of the pure virginal female exhibited greater tendencies to endorse items reflecting poor inhibition over one's impulses and little concern for presenting oneself in a socially favorable manner.

Section 10 (Submission and Dependence) positively correlated with all four factors of the SFQ at the .001 level of significance. Significant correlations with subscales on the PRF--Form E were not achieved. These findings suggest that sexual fantasies of submission and dependence bear no relationship to specific personality traits, but are related to various forms of sexual fantasies as measured by the SFQ. However, this finding does not imply that individuals who have these types of fantasies do not exhibit similar personality traits of submission and dependence, rather, it is possible that such traits are not directly measured on the subscales of the PRF--Form E. Review of the descriptions of each scale provided by Jackson (1984) appears to support this contention.

Sexual fantasies of Rejection and Insecurity (Section 11) failed to correlate with any of the factors on the SFQ. It is possible that the SFQ fails to include items similar in content. It is interesting that this section of the Checklist stood alone in the factor analysis of the items conducted in the 1986 study. Furthermore, its exhibited independence from the other subscales throughout the item analysis completed on the refined version of the Checklist (1989) further suggests that this section of the SFC either examines a very specific type of sexual fantasy or is relatively unrelated to sexually fantasies in general. Future research investigating the dynamics of this section are required to clarify what is being measured. Finally, this section of the SFC exhibited a positive correlation ($r = .24$, $\alpha = .01$) to the subscale measuring an individual's tendency to endorse socially desirable items, which is an attempt to present a favourable picture of oneself. This finding suggests that individuals who report high levels of responding to sexual fantasies of rejection and insecurity are likely to endorse socially desirable items on measures of personality.

Section 12 (Mutual Sexual Activities) was found to correlate in a positive direction with all four fantasy factors of the SFQ, suggesting that individuals endorsing high scores on fantasies measuring mutual pleasure and satisfaction will also display high scores on sexual fantasy items containing Intimate ($r = .59$, $\alpha = .00$), Exploratory ($r = .51$, $\alpha = .00$), Impersonal ($r = .48$, $\alpha = .00$) and Sadomasochistic ($r = .34$, $\alpha = .00$) elements. The results from Table 31 further demonstrates positive correlations with subscales on the PRF--Form E, measuring: 1) Impulsivity ($r = .26$, $\alpha = .00$); 2) Defendence ($r = .23$, $\alpha = .01$); and 3) Sentience ($r = .21$, $\alpha = .01$). Negative correlations to subscales including: 1) Harmavoidance ($r = -.28$, $\alpha = .00$); 2) Order ($r = -.22$, $\alpha = .01$); and 3) Infrequency ($r = -.22$, $\alpha = .01$) were also exhibited. Therefore, individuals with high response levels to mutual sexual activities also displayed high item endorsement on personality scales measuring tendencies to act without deliberation; readiness to defend self against real or imagined harm from others; and maintenance of a hedonistic or aesthetic lifestyle. Negative correlations further suggest that these individuals are more likely to engage in risk taking behaviours, are less concerned with organizing their environment and less likely to respond to personality test items in an implausible or pseudo-random order.

Overall, these results suggest that the fantasies measured by the Sexual Fantasy Checklist, with the exception of Section 11 (Rejection and Insecurity) are measuring in various degrees the same types of fantasies measured by Wilson's Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire, which provides criterion-related validity to the items contained within this measurement instrument. Positive correlations between each section of the Checklist and in most cases all four factors of the SFQ suggests that the SFC may be more discriminative when used with individuals similar in characteristics to the sample used in this study. As Wilson's SFQ is an established measurement instrument, justification for use of the SFC as a measurement instrument for an individual's sexual fantasies, is achieved. The relationship between one's sexual fantasies and one's personality characteristics as delineated by the PRF--Form E, were described and further suggests that individuals with specific types of fantasies will likely exhibit specific personality traits. These findings suggest, overall, that preference for specific types of sexual fantasies may be influenced by personal traits and that investigation of both constructs is required (using multimethod aggregate research measures). Possession of specific traits, sexual fantasies and proclivity to act out or express one's fantasies requires investigation of potential relationships. Further research on larger populations of criminal offenders and nonoffenders is required before more conclusive statements may accurately be made concerning the relationships described within this chapter. Nevertheless, the conclusion that sexual fantasies and specific personality traits are related is supported by these results. Furthermore, exhibited group differences in sexual fantasies and personality characteristics were found providing the necessary impetus to continue progressing this type of research.

Table 32

Correlations PRF on Four Groups

PRF	Section 1 Power and Domination	Section 2 Bondage	Section 3 Seduction and Courtship	Section 4 Sexual Aggression
Abasement	-.12	-.14	.01	-.20*
Achievement	-.08	.05	.05	-.05
Affiliation	-.04	.04	.03	-.05
Aggression	.24*	.11	.13	.22*
Autonomy	.15	.10	.11	.21*
Change	.15	-.05	.13	.17
Cognitive Structure	-.09	.06	-.01	-.08
Defendence	.24*	.19	.08	.31**
Dominance	.14	.23*	.10	.07
Endurance	-.10	.01	.09	-.10
Exhibition	.16	.17	.13	.10
Harmavoidance	-.15	-.08	-.28**	-.25**
Impulsivity	.28**	.11	.17	.35**
Nurturance	-.05	-.18	.08	-.16
Order	-.15	-.12	-.01	-.23*
Play	.14	.13	.04	.22*
Sentience	.21*	.19	.13	.22*
Social Recognition	.03	.05	-.00	.02
Succorance	-.00	-.05	-.13	-.11
Understanding	-.05	.10	-.01	-.02
Infrequency	-.07	-.03	-.14	-.16
Desirability	-.21*	.04	-.16	-.19
SFQ				
Exploratory	.53**	.43**	.40**	.60**
Intimate	.42**	.41**	.41**	.59**
Impersonal	.52**	.48**	.35**	.58**
Sadomasochism	.50**	.61**	.23*	.48**

Table 32, continued

Correlations PRF on Four Groups

PRF	Section 5 Anger and Hatred	Section 6 Sadism	Section 7 Masochism	Section 8 Love Friendship and Intimacy
Abasement	-.00	-.03	-.08	.09
Achievement	-.18	-.14	-.00	.14
Affiliation	-.13	-.13	-.10	.01
Aggression	.19	.14	.17	-.03
Autonomy	.13	.14	.17	.03
Change	.07	.12	.16	.03
Cognitive Structure	-.07	-.09	-.03	-.02
Defendence	.10	.10	.12	-.05
Dominance	-.17	-.09	.09	.10
Endurance	-.22*	-.20*	-.08	.25*
Exhibition	-.06	.00	.00	.08
Harmavoidance	-.07	-.02	-.12	-.24*
Impulsivity	.18	.11	.21*	.01
Nurturance	-.14	-.10	.00	.21*
Order	-.07	-.10	-.14	.01
Play	.10	.10	.05	-.11
Sentience	.04	.05	.25**	.05
Social Recognition	-.03	-.08	-.01	-.00
Succorance	.03	.02	-.01	-.08
Understanding	-.23*	-.06	.11	-.00
Infrequency	.10	.13	-.05	-.20*
Desirability	-.26**	-.14	-.16	.07
SFQ				
Exploratory	.20*	.38**	.52**	.23*
Intimate	.03	.14	.36**	.32**
Impersonal	.20*	.38**	.58**	.20*
Sadomasochism	.19*	.46**	.65**	.09

Table 32, continued

Correlations PRF on Four Groups

PRF	Section 9 Spiritual Worship	Section 10 Submission and Dependence	Section 11 Rejection and Insecurity	Section 12 Mutual Sexual Activities
Abasement	.05	-.01	.14	-.15
Achievement	-.02	.05	.01	-.01
Affiliation	-.11	.01	-.18	.04
Aggression	.11	.02	.12	.18
Autonomy	.15	-.01	.12	.11
Change	.12	.02	.09	.15
Cognitive Structure	-.10	-.03	.07	-.07
Defendence	.16	.03	-.03	.23*
Dominance	.02	.06	-.11	.13
Endurance	-.07	.07	-.02	.00
Exhibition	-.04	.08	-.08	.12
Harmavoidance	-.13	-.15	-.09	-.28**
Impulsivity	.24*	.08	.11	.26**
Nurturance	.12	.14	.07	-.05
Order	-.08	-.02	-.05	-.22*
Play	.09	-.05	-.04	.18
Sentience	.17	.16	.10	.21*
Social Recognition	-.03	.09	.05	.02
Succorance	-.01	.04	.01	-.11
Understanding	-.11	-.03	-.02	-.01
Infrequency	-.06	-.16	-.04	-.21*
Desirability	-.32**	-.15	-.24*	-.17
SFQ				
Exploratory	.39**	.32**	.09	.51**
Intimate	.25**	.33**	.04	.59**
Impersonal	.43**	.30**	.12	.48**
Sadomasochism	.35**	.25**	.07	.34**

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion and Implication of Results

General Statement of Findings

The results outlined in Chapter Four have demonstrated that differences between various types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, personality characteristics and life experiences exist. The exact nature of these differences and the direction in which these differences occur were distinguished in many of the comparisons, but were not found for all. Limitations in sample size appeared to be the largest contributor towards failure to demonstrate significant findings, however, further modification and refinement of the measurement instruments used in this study was found to be both required and justified. Despite some failure to establish significant differences, a large number of results were found to be statistically significant, and clinical significance was discussed. Overall, the results from this study support literary claims that sexual offenders harbour sexual fantasies, which are both congruent with the crimes they commit and are different from other types of criminal offenders and nonoffenders. Distinct personality characteristics reported by the offenders and nonoffenders were found, and relationships between personality traits and reported sexual fantasies were delineated. These results and consequential implications arising from these findings will be summarized and presented in the following paragraphs.

Specific Findings

The specific findings of this study pertain to the research questions outlined in Chapter One and refined in Chapter Four. Each question will be reiterated followed by a summary description of the findings and relevant discussion evolving from the results. A final chapter summary will conclude and satisfy completion of this research investigation.

Criminal History

> Do various types of offenders differ in their reported criminal histories and if so, what differences may be described?

The results indicated that a wide variety of inmates participated within this study. Although a relatively larger percentage of inmates were convicted of a property-related offence, the majority of inmates were evenly distributed across crimes consisting of some type of assault, sexual assault, and/or murder. The majority of offenders had spent between two to five years in jail at the time of this study and approximately two-thirds of the inmates had greater than two convictions for any type of indictable offence. Of the inmates with prior convictions, close to forty percent had crimes similar in nature to their current offence. Finally, all had spent time in jail for these prior offences.

These results suggest that a fairly heterogeneous sample of offenders were participants within this study, which offers some latitude in generalizing the results to other offenders. However, limitations in number of offenders across groups and failure to control for treated versus untreated offenders, minimum versus maximum versus medium security types of inmates reduce generalization of the results. Furthermore, differences in criminal history, such as number and types of offences may contribute to success or failure in yielding distinctive findings and, therefore, require control in future research investigations. Finally, misleading categorization of offenders were discussed as a result of the possibility of multiple offences and require future establishment of standardized criteria to place offenders in groups, which would allow for across-study replications and comparisons.

Background Information

Do specific factors, such as history of physical or sexual abuse, appear as characteristic experiences in various types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders and to what degree?

The results from the Background Information Questionnaire demonstrated significant differences in history of sexual abuse, with sex offenders (both sex offender--adult and sex offender--minor) more likely than the other groups of offenders and nonoffenders to report such experiences. Therefore, support for literary claims that sex offenders are often victims of a sexual assault, is supported. Implicated is the need to address this type of victimization and its relationship to commission of a similar offence in adulthood, both through future research and treatment of this type of offender.

Although statistically significant results for the remaining background factors were not attempted, characteristic trends established through the calculation of group percentages were found. These trends include a greater likelihood of "daily" alcohol consumption by all criminal offenders, as compared to nonoffenders. However, discernible differences across all the consumption categories were not revealed, providing only partial support to literary claims that alcohol abuse is more prevalent in criminal offenders. Nonetheless, individual proclivity and pertinence to the commission of a criminal offence were suggested and require further investigation. It is important to recognize, however, that recall of daily consumption patterns by an individual who has been incarcerated for several years may be erroneous and misrepresentative of actual consumption patterns. Further research (both proactive and retrospective) investigating specific patterns of alcohol consumption across large groups of offenders and nonoffenders is required prior to completing more conclusive statements.

Reported differences between groups on use of pornographic magazines were not clearly observable. However, all groups were found to "sometimes" engage in viewing pornography and it is possible that in some cases, sex offenders in particular may use pornography to liberate their fantasies into an actual commission of a sexual assault. Further research specifically investigating the nature of this relationship remains required. The importance of investigating the salience of pornography for each individual sex offender during treatment was demonstrated by literary claims, this author's past research thesis and the current study. Overall pornography appears to be a contributory, but not a causal factor in the commission of a sexual offence. Future study using a series of research questions designed to delineate frequency of use and the nature and context during which engagement in pornographic utilization occurs, is suggested.

Characteristic trends were found suggesting support for literary contentions that children who are victims of physical violence are more likely to become violent and commit some type of criminal offence during adulthood, than are individuals who experience no physical abuse. However, some inconsistencies across rates of violence experienced were observed and not all violent offenders reported victimization in childhood. Thus, although physical abuse may or may not be present in the backgrounds of criminally inclined individuals, research assessing the personal dispositions and strategies used to survive childhood abuse appears necessary and justified areas of future aggregate investigations.

Overall, these results were consistent with the results obtained by this author in 1986 and similarly provide support or partial support for previous literary claims. The importance of continuing to investigate these background experiences and/or criminal histories, utilizing aggregate research models and specifically designed measurement instruments appears to be warranted. These findings further render therapeutic implications suggesting that historical experiences are an important area to address in conjunction with the overall program implemented to treat criminal offenders.

Sexual Fantasies

> Do sexual offenders differ from other criminal offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, as measured by Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire and Furman's (1986) Sexual Fantasy Checklist?

and;

> What sections of the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire and the Sexual Fantasy Checklist discriminate between the fantasy content described by subjects in each of the groups?

The enormity of data and results generated by these questions and delineated in Chapter Four will not be reiterated, but will be summarized as briefly as possible. To begin with, the results, overall, demonstrate that sexual offenders do, in fact, significantly differ from other criminal offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies, both on the SFQ and the SFC. However, similarities across the groups were also revealed.

The nature of the differences between groups on Wilson's (1978) SFQ were statistically significant on the factor measuring "Intimate sexual fantasies." More specifically, the combined group of sex offenders had fewer intimate sexual fantasies than did the other types of offenders and nonoffenders. This does not appear to be a surprising result as one would not expect sex offenders to find fantasies of intimate committed relationships to be as salient as aggressive fantasies. However, significant differences upon the Sexual Aggression factor of the SFQ were not found, which is surprising given previous results and expectations that sex offenders harbor more aggressive sexual fantasies.

As will become more clear in the following paragraphs, it was concluded that Wilson's instrument may fail to tap salient fantasies of criminal offenders and, although a well developed and useful instrument to use with other populations, may not be appropriate for use in criminal investigations. Nonetheless, the results suggest that individuals with criminal inclinations and, with specific sexual assault proclivities, fantasize less with regard to intimate sexual fantasies than do noncriminally-oriented individuals. The nature of this tendency may be associated with the lack of regard for others (as discussed in the literature) and may be an interesting avenue for future investigation. Finally, restructuring offender's fantasies to include and enhance the saliency of intimate sexual fantasies over aggressive sexual fantasies appears to be an important therapeutic consideration, as evidence by the absence of this fantasizing in the low item endorsements observed for sex offenders.

As mentioned earlier, significant differences in reported sexual fantasies as measured by the Sexual Fantasy Checklist were found. More specifically, the collapsed group of sex offenders differed from the two groups of criminal offenders and single group of nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies at less than the .001 level of statistical significance. Univariate F-Ratio Tests revealed that group differences on eight of the twelve sections of the SFC were at either the .05 or .01 level of significance. Group differences at the .05 level of significance were found on sections measuring Spiritual Worship; Rejection and Insecurity; Bondage; Seduction and Courtship; Love, Friendship and Intimacy; and Submission and Dependence. Group differences at the .01 level of significance were exhibited on sections measuring Anger and Hatred and Mutual Sexual Activities. The nature of these differences were determined for only two of the eight sections, including fantasies of Spiritual Worship, and Rejection and Insecurity. The group of nonoffenders were less likely than the offenders, overall, to endorse fantasies contained within these sections of the SFC. Significant group differences were found to exist on the factor measuring

Rejection and Insecurity. However, replication of the 1986 finding that sex offenders differed from nonoffenders on the factor measuring Sexual Aggression was not achieved. This failure to replicate may have been influenced by the nature of offenders sampled, as the 1986 sample was composed of offenders in treatment, whereas the current sample of offenders were not receiving treatment. Years in prison and the presence of treated versus untreated inmates may prove to be revealing.

Results from the Profile Analyses completed upon the SFC failed to yield statistically significant results during the five group comparison condition. However, clinical differences in profile characteristics were exhibited within the comparison conditions delineating (1) the sex offenders from other offenders and nonoffenders, and (2) the entire group of criminal offenders versus the nonoffenders. Higher response rates to Sections (1) Power and Domination; (3) Seduction and Courtship; (5) Anger and Hatred; (8) Love, Friendship, and Intimacy; (9) Spiritual Worship; (10) Submission and Dependence, and (11) Rejection and Insecurity; and lower response rates to Sections (2) Bondage; (4) Sexual Aggression, and (12) Mutual Sexual Activities were exhibited by the sex offenders. Collapsing the offenders into a single group as compared to the nonoffenders, served to reveal further differences with higher response rates similar to those found for the sex offenders, with additional high rates for Sections 6 (Sadism) and 7 (Masochism). These results clearly demonstrate that sex offenders and all criminal offenders report higher frequency of responses to sexual fantasies that involve hostile acts of aggression than do nonoffenders, but also demonstrate sexual fantasies that are not aggressive. The saliency of these differing types of fantasies require further address. Use of plethysmographic techniques may yield further information.

As indicated earlier, these results are somewhat inconsistent with the results obtained on the SFQ. Overall, the four groups of criminal offenders exhibited higher frequencies in response rates than the nonoffenders on nine of the twelve sections of the Checklist. Their responses to the sections measuring Bondage, Sexual Aggression, and Mutual Sexual Gratification were found to be lower than the nonoffenders. These results contrast with the findings revealed for the SFQ. Lower rates of responding to all of the items on the SFQ were exhibited by the offenders and with the exception of low response rates to the Intimacy factor of the SFQ, discriminative results were not obtained. Therefore, it appears that the discriminative power of the SFC is greater than that of the SFQ when investigating criminal populations. Alternatively, this suggests that the

SFC measures fantasies reflective of deviant sexual acts to a greater degree than does the SFQ. As sex offenders moreso than other individuals exhibited proclivities to harbour these fantasies, use of the SFC may be more appropriate in similar types of investigation. Finally, clinical observation of the Profiles exhibited by each group were found to be more similar than expected. That is, visual observation yields little difference in exhibited profiles and suggests: (1) discriminative properties of the SFC requires further modification; (2) the SFC may fail to discriminate across groups; or (3) little difference across groups if one's sexual fantasies, in fact, exist. Further research is, therefore, required. These findings support contentions that inappropriate measurement instruments may contribute to the exhibited inconsistencies across research studies and that further development of specifically targeted instruments is both required and justified.

With respect to the results found in the 1986 study completed by this author, some similarities were observed. High response rates for the sex offenders compared to the nonoffenders to Sections 1 (Power and Domination), 4 (Sexual Aggression), 6 (Sadism), 10 (Submission and Dependence), 11 (Rejection and Insecurity), and 12 (Mutual Sexual Activities) were found in the 1986 study. Although these studies are not directly comparable as the SFC has been revised, the groups sampled were different in offence type, degree of criminality and violence, and were not in treatment, it appears that modification of the SFC has yielded greater discriminative power. Similar to the 1986 study, however, is the effects of limitations in sample size and it is postulated that future research using larger samples, controlling for offence, degrees of violence and experience with treatment will yield more conclusive results. Finally, continued revision of the SFC appears to be justified by these results and further item analysis for discriminative power and inclusion of a social desirability index may be appropriate avenues to address.

Personality Characteristics

Do sexual offenders differ from other types of criminal offenders and/or nonoffenders on Jackson's (1967) Personality Research Form--Form E?

The results obtained to answer the question posed above, demonstrated clear differences in reported personality characteristics. More specifically significant differences between the five groups sampled were found on eleven of the twenty-two subscales of the PRF--Form E. Collapsing the two sex offender groups into a single group and comparing them to the two remaining groups of criminal offenders and single group of nonoffenders yielded the same, but enhanced level of significant differences and two additional subscales. The eleven subscales included the following: Abasement, Aggression, Autonomy, Change, Dominance, Exhibition, Sentience, Social Recognition, Succorrance, Infrequency, and Social Desirability. These and two additional subscales including (1) Impulsivity and (2) Order exhibited significant differences between groups.

The direction of the differences between the sex offenders and the others were exhibited on nine of the thirteen subscales, previously mentioned. These differences are outlined below in point form:

1. Abasement: sex offenders greater than nonoffenders.
2. Dominance: nonoffenders greater than murderers greater than "other" offenders greater than sex offenders.
3. Succorrance: sex offenders greater than "other" offenders.
4. Social Desirability: nonoffenders greater than murderers greater than sex offenders greater than "other" offenders.
5. Autonomy: "Other" offenders greater than sex offenders.
6. Exhibition: nonoffenders greater than sex offenders greater than "other" offenders greater than murderers.
7. Impulsivity: "other" offenders greater than murderers.
8. Order: sex offenders greater than nonoffenders.

9. Sentience: nonoffenders greater than "other" offenders.

As demonstrated above, the differences described between groups suggests that Jackson's PRF--Form E is a discriminative tool to be considered for use with criminal populations. Distinctive differences in personality characteristics are exhibited between groups and the direction of these differences were ascertained. Further collapsing the entire group of offenders into a criminal versus noncriminal comparison condition further portrayed the discriminative power of this instrument. Eight significant subscale differences, including: Abasement, Affiliation, Dominance, Exhibition, Order, Sentience, Social Recognition, and Infrequency were revealed. Sample size enhancement and/or criminality, itself, may have contributed to this result. Therefore, future research investigating the discriminative utility of the PRF--Form E should include larger sample sizes, various types of offenders and cross validation to other measures of personality.

It is interesting to note that all of the criminals were found on the PRF--Form E to be more submissive, deliberate and/or methodical and inclined to describe themselves in a socially favorable manner. In contrast, the nonoffenders were more likely to endorse items describing themselves as sociable, domineering, exhibitionistic, hedonistic and concerned with approval from others. Future research investigating the consistency of these findings may yield important therapeutic implications for the development of specific personality characteristics, which may potentially contribute to the absence of committing a criminal offence. The Multivariate Profile Analyses completed upon the PRF--Form E revealed similar findings and supports the contention that future research investigating the utility of the PRF--Form E is both justified and warranted. These results further reveal that literary inconsistencies with personality investigations upon criminals, rests within the use of inappropriate measurement instruments. It appears that devices investigating nonpathological characteristics may be more appropriate than those measuring psychopathological characteristics, when investigating the personalities of criminal offenders.

Relationship Across Measures

> Does any relationship between one's personality characteristics (as measured by the PRF--Form E) and one's sexual fantasies (as measured by the SFC and SFQ) exist, and if so, what is the nature of these relationships?

The results exhibited in Table 32 demonstrate significant correlations between the sections of the Sexual

Fantasy Checklist to subscales on the Personality Research Form--Form E and the factors underlying the Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire at both the .01 and .001 levels of significance. The nature of these differences were outlined in Chapter Four and suggest that relationships between one's personal characteristics and proclivity to engage in particular types of sexual fantasizing may exist. As the nature of these relations were found to be numerous they will not be reiterated as their existence described in Chapter Four is sufficient to respond to the research question posed. Nevertheless, it is important to note that construct-related validity for the SFC was achieved by the correlations exhibited to the SFQ. Furthermore the discriminative power of the SFC was found to be greater than that of the SFQ as exhibited by the nature of the observed relationships. Overall, it was established that a relationship between one's personality characteristics and one's sexual fantasies may exist and require further aggregate investigations to clearly delineate the dynamics and implications, which may occur as a result of this relationship.

Summary

The results presented in this Chapter first described criminal and background histories as a means for replication studies completed in the future. Support for previous literary contentions was found to be inconsistent as is commonly observed, but substantiating results revealing that history of sexual abuse is more commonly found in sex offenders than other types of offenders and/or nonoffenders provides therapeutic implications. Characteristic trends regarding alcohol consumption, history of physical abuse and use of pornography were described. Not only do these results yield therapeutic implications, but the need for societal recognition and address of these widely recognized but often denied social problems is once again confirmed.

The results from this chapter also demonstrated that sexual offenders differed from other types of offenders and nonoffenders in reported sexual fantasies. The nature of these differences were described but not conclusively delineated by the research instruments utilized in this study. Further revision to these instruments or use of various other measures appears to be necessary. However, the validity and utility of the revised Sexual Fantasy Checklist (Furman, 1986, 1988) over Wilson's (1978) Sexual Fantasy Questionnaire when investigating criminal offenders was demonstrated. Future studies utilizing larger sample sizes and controlling for offence, degree of violence and treatment experiences were found to be warranted. Therapeutic implications including restructuring deviant fantasies to nondeviant fantasies is supported by this data. And finally, the importance of personality characteristics in relation to specific types of sexual fantasies, was introduced. Discriminative personality traits as measured by Jackson's (1967) PRF--Form E were found between groups and several relationships to reported sexual fantasies were observed. Future research composed of multiple measurement devices, including various personality measures, upon various types and larger numbers of criminal offenders was found to be warranted.

Overall, it may be concluded that despite the limitations found to exist within the present study, the purposes of this research project were achieved.

FOOTNOTES

[1] The "Sexual Fantasy Checklist" developed in 1986 consisted of a series of statements in which each individual would place a checkmark indicating whether or not he has ever had a particular fantasy. Further explanation of the checklist's development and utility will be presented in Chapter III. A full review of the checklist's development is contained within the Masters thesis presented by this author--see within References: Furman, K. (1986).

[2] Background Information Questionnaire. This questionnaire was developed by Dr. Oto Cadsky and is utilized by Alberta Hospital Edmonton upon patients admitted to this facility. Use of Dr. Cadsky's questionnaire was implemented as a means to obtain specific information regarding each individual's life experiences pertinent to this study. Therefore only a select number of questions were posed and if required revised to fit the format and needs of this particular research project.

[3] The population of inmates generally found incarcerated within a Provincial correctional institution are serving time for offense(s) not relevant to this study (i.e. a maximum sentence is for two years less a day) and therefore provision of appropriate individual subjects from such institutes could not be conducted.

[4] Although it may have been preferred to invite all 450 inmates to participate, time constraints including the necessity to begin a doctoral internship in September of 1988 precluded sampling all inmates residing within the institution.

[5] Each individual participant was provided with the choice to review their results following completion of the data analysis of this study. In order to receive this feedback, provision of their name and associated identity number was required and completed as indicated on the permission to release information form in Appendix II.

[6] The questions posed on this survey were in part developed by this author and others were derived from an intake questionnaire developed by Dr. Oto Cadsky and utilized by Alberta Hospital upon a patient's admission to the facility.

[7] Copies of the Sexual Fantasy Checklist may be obtained from the author for educational research purposes only. Due to the sensitive nature of its content, inclusion of this measurement device was not considered to be appropriate.

[8] Jackson's (1967) PRF-Form E may be obtained by the author and replication in this thesis was not necessary nor appropriate in light of the effects upon its utility would be diminished by public dispersion.

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APPENDIX I

The purpose of this study is to look at the various types of sexual fantasies a person may or may not have. Men who are in prison on a variety of types of offences and those who are not will be asked to participate. All participation is on a voluntary basis and you are not required to participate in order to fulfill any prison term requirements. Furthermore, should you wish to withdraw from participating at any point in completing the surveys, you have the right to do so without fear of any consequences. If you choose to participate, your identity will be protected as you are not required to write your name on any of the questionnaires. Any information you provide will be confidential and I will be the only person able to view the responses you give unless you indicate otherwise on the consent form. To further protect your identity, all surveys will be placed together within a single box. This procedure will protect your privacy and make it impossible to connect any survey to a specific person.

If you volunteer to participate you will receive four questionnaires to complete. Two of the questionnaires require you to report the sexual fantasies you may have. As your sexual fantasies may include a wide range of scenarios, you will find the questionnaires to include a variety of possibilities. These items were not developed to offend you in any way, rather they were created to cover as large a range as possible. Therefore, your honesty in reporting your sexual fantasies is of utmost importance.

Should you feel unable to honestly report your fantasies, you may not wish to participate in this study. The two remaining questionnaires look at personal information to gain a greater understanding of the individuals who choose to participate in this research. Therefore, questions regarding some of your life experiences and personal characteristics may be expected. Your ability to honestly provide this information will be appreciated and your responses will remain in my confidence. Again it is important that you understand that any information you provide will be confidential and the absence of your name on the questionnaires will protect your privacy and personal identity. There are four questionnaires, which you will be asked to fill out on your own. I believe that completion of the surveys may take between one to three hours, but hopefully not longer.

I am a student at the University of Alberta and my research is solely for educational purposes. In order to assist me in my learning, your participation in this research is deeply appreciated. Following completion of my schooling I hope to continue working within correctional institutions. Therefore, your cooperation at this time will greatly contribute to my education and future career. Thus, I wish to express deeply felt gratitude towards all of you who participate in this study.

Those of you who wish to volunteer for this research may fill out the consent form attached below. If you do not wish to participate I would like to thank you anyway for taking the time to read this message.

CONSENT FORM

I, ____________ _____________, having been informed of the purposes of this research and having not in any way been forced or coerced into participating, do willingly volunteer my time as a participant in this study.

Signed ________________________ Date ___________________

APPENDIX II

The purpose of this study is to look at the various types of sexual fantasies a person may or may not have. Men who are in prison on a variety of types of offences and those who are not will be asked to participate. All participation is on a voluntary basis and you are not required to participate in order to fulfill any prison term requirements. Furthermore, should you wish to withdraw from participating at any point in completing the surveys, you have the right to do so without fear of any consequences. If you choose to participate, your identity will be protected as you are not required to write your name on any of the questionnaires. Any information you provide will be confidential and I will be the only person able to view the responses you give unless you indicate otherwise on the consent form. To further protect your identity, all surveys will be placed together within a single box. This procedure will protect your privacy and make it impossible to connect any survey to a specific person.

If you volunteer to participate you will be assigned an identification number by a staff member from the psychology department and this number should match the identification number written at the top of the questionnaires provided to you. You will receive four questionnaires to complete. Two of the questionnaires require you to report the sexual fantasies you may have. As your sexual fantasies may include a wide range of scenarios, you will find the questionnaires to include a variety of possibilities. These items were not developed to offend you in any way, rather they were created to cover as large a range as possible. Therefore, your honesty in reporting your sexual fantasies is of utmost importance.

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I am a student at the University of Alberta and my research is solely for educational purposes. In order to assist me in my learning, your participation in this research is deeply appreciated. Following completion of my schooling I hope to continue working within correctional institutions. Therefore, your cooperation at this time will greatly contribute to my education and future career. Thus, I wish to express deeply felt gratitude towards all of you who participate in this study.

Those of you who wish to volunteer for this research may fill out the consent form attached below. If you do not wish to participate I would like to thank you anyway for taking the time to read this message.

CONSENT FORM

I, ______________ ________________, having been informed of the purposes of this research and having not in any way been forced or coerced into participating, do willingly volunteer my time as a participant in this study.

Signed ____________________________ Date ______________________

In addition to volunteering as a participant in this research project, please indicate whether or not you wish to release any information you provide in this study to a psychologist currently employed within RPC. This release is to allow you the right to further discuss your participation in this research with a psychologist. Please understand that the psychologist will have access to the questionnaires you complete ONLY if you sign this release form. It is not necessary for you to sign this release to be able to participate in this study. Therefore if you do not wish for a psychologist within RPC to have access to information you provide in this study please check the following box.

I do not wish to release any information to any person other than the primary researcher involved in this study.

No ☐

If you do wish to release any information to a psychologist within RPC please check the following box and write your name and assigned identification number.

I am willing to release information to a psychologist within RPC.

Yes ☐

Name ____________________ ______________________

Identification Number _________________________

APPENDIX III

I.D.#: ___ ___ ___ 0
4

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Where do you live?

   1. In a city area ______
   2. In a rural area ______ 5

2. Prior to your conviction, how often did you drink alcohol?

   1. every day ______
   2. once a week ______
   3. 3 times a week ______
   4. 5 times a week ______
   5. a few times a month ______
   6. never ______
   7. other - please describe ______ 6

3. Before the age of 16, did you have any sexual activity which you did not want, and which included touching?

   1. Yes ______
   2. No ______ 7

   if yes, was it with your

father?	yes / no	8
mother?	yes / no	9
foster or stepfather?	yes / no	10
foster or stepmother?	yes / no	11
brother?	yes / no	12
sister?	yes / no	13
other?	yes / no	14

How old were you? ______ 15 - 16

Did you receive counselling for this?

1. Yes ______
2. No ______ 17

4. When you were younger, how often were you hit by a parent (circle one in each column).

a) slapped with open hand?	b) hit with belt or stick kicked, punched, etc.
1. never	1. never
2. less than once a month	2. less than once a month
3. once a month	3. once a month
4. more than once a month	4. more than once a month
5. once a week	5. once a week
6. more than once a week	6. more than once a week

18,19

Mainly by: Circle one in each column

1. mother	1. mother
2. father	2. father
3. both equally	3. both equally

20,21

5. Were you ever hit so badly by a parent that you had to: (circle one in each column)

a) take time off school	b) get medical help
1. yes	1. yes
2. no	2. no

22,23

6. How often did you get into a physical fight with: (circle one in each column)

a) brother or sister	b) other children
1. never	1. never
2. less than once a month	2. less than once a month
3. once a month	3. once a month
4. more than once a month	4. more than once a month
5. once a week	5. once a week
6. more than once a week	6. more than once a week

24,25

7. How often did one of your parents hit the other?

1. never _____
2. less than once a month _____
3. once a month _____
4. more than once a month _____
5. once a week _____
6. more than once a week _____ 26

8. Which parent did most of the hitting? (Check one)

1. father _____
2. mother _____
3. both equally _____
4. don't know _____ 27

9. Did they ever fight so hard that one of them had to get medical help?

1. yes _____
2. no _____ 28

10. What is the highest grade you completed?

_____ 1) 8 grades or less
_____ 2) Some high school
_____ 3) Completed and graduated from high school
_____ 4) Some university or business college
_____ 5) University or college graduate
_____ 6) Graduate or professional degree
_____ 7) Other ______________________________ 29

11. How old were you when you first had sexual intercourse?

_____ 30 - 31

12. Are you now:

_____ 1) Single
_____ 2) Married
_____ 3) Living common law
_____ 4) Divorced
_____ 5) Separated
_____ 6) Widowed 32

13. How many times have you been married?

_____ 1) Never
_____ 2) Once
_____ 3) Twice
_____ 4) Three times
_____ 5) More than three times 33

14. What is your religion?

1. United _____
2. Anglican _____
3. Other Protestant _____
4. Roman Catholic _____
5. Greek Orthodox _____
6. Ukrainian Catholic _____
7. Mormon _____
8. Christian _____
9. Jewish _____
10. Born Again Christian _____
11. Muslim _____
12. Hindu _____
13. Other _____
14. None _____ 34 - 35

15. Do you think your childhood was happy?

1. yes _____
2. no _____ 36

Please explain ____

16. Do you read pornographic magazines?

1. Never
2. Sometimes
3. Fairly often
4. Very often
5. As often as I can 37

If yes, which ones do you usually read?

Which ones do you sometimes read:

17. How old are you? _____ 38 - 39

18. How old were you:

a) when you were charged with your first crime? _____ 40 - 41
b) sentenced or convicted for your first crime? _____ 42 - 43

19. Before you began your jail term, what was your annual income?

1) 0 - 10 thousand dollars a year
2) 11 - 20 thousand dollars a year
3) 20 - 30 thousand dollars a year
4) 30 - 40 thousand dollars a year
5) 40 - 50 thousand dollars a year
6) 50 - 60 thousand dollars a year
7) greater than 60 thousand dollars a year 44

20. Ethnic origin __________ 45 - 46